The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1901.

The Week.

Much significance attaches to the selection by President Roosevelt of ex-Gov. Jones as United States District Judge for Alabama, to fill a vacancy caused by death. The late incumbent was a Republican, and the Republican politicians of Alabama took it for granted that a Republican President would consider only Republican candidates for the vacancy. But when it appeared that the party had nobody to present who was worthy of the place, Mr. Roosevelt concluded to look elsewhere, and to pick out the best man without regard to his political affiliations. The man upon whom his choice fell served the State with honor a few years ago, as Democratic Governor, and more recently has distinguished himself in the Constitutional Convention as the opponent of extreme measures directed against the blacks, and as the advocate of provisions designed to restrain the spread of lynching. He enjoys the confidence of the best elements of both races, while his high standing as a lawyer abundantly qualifies him for good service on the bench. Of course, this appointment is not to be regarded as an isolated act, but rather as the first illustration of a policy which the President means to pursue in the South, viz., to appoint only fit men to office in that section, as elsewhere. Being a Republican, he will naturally give the preference to representatives of his own party when it presents worthy candidates, but he knows that in many regions the Republican organization is so weak and disreputable that this is impossible. In such cases Mr. Roosevelt will insist upon finding the right type of man, even if he is compelled, as in this Alabama instance, to take a Democrat.

Dispatches from Washington concur in saying that W. F. Wakeman is to be removed from the office of Appraiser of the Port of New York. This is not a case of removal during a term of office, since there is no term to the office of Appraiser. He holds the place during the pleasure of the President, and this would ordinarily mean, under a good civil-service system, that he holds it while he performs his duties satisfactorily. Mr. Wakeman, whatever may be said of his intentions and motives in the premises, has kept the Custom-house and the importing business in hot water nearly all the time he has been in office, by his extraordinary and unexpected rulings. He has made more work for the Secretary of the Treasury than any other incumbent whom we can now recall. During the greater part of the time that he held the office of Appraiser, he also held that of Secretary of the American Protective Tariff League. It was a manifest scandal that a man should hold these two positions at the same time. As Secretary of the League, he was committed to the doctrine that the importation of foreign goods should be curbed. As Appraiser, he was in a position to put on the curb. This scandal was so glaring, and was brought to public attention so often by Wakeman's rulings, that the Secretary of the Treasury finally required him to resign one place or the other, and then he resigned the Secretaryship of the League. But of course he saw no impropriety in holding both places, and it must be admitted that, if importation is a crime, it would be quite proper for him to hold both. If, on the other hand, it is a lawful and necessary vocation, yielding about one-half of the public revenues, then a decent regard for the opinion of mankind requires that the judgment of all the men employed in the customs service should be free from bias in their official action, or the suspicion of it.

The demonstrations which took place at Havana and Santiago de Cuba on Thursday in favor of trade reciprocity with the United States were so formidable in point of numbers that they cannot fail to make a strong impression upon our Government and people. It is needless to say that a movement for annexation will not be far behind reciprocity. In fact, the demonstrations were almost as pronounced for the one as for the other. Therefore, they may as well be considered together. We have never considered Cuba a desirable addition to the American Republic. We do not desire her for the sake of bigness, because we are big enough already. We think that her population, race, religion, ideas, habits, traditions, are incongruous with our own. We are of the opinion that the marriage would not be a happy one, yet our chief objection to the policy mapped out in the Platt amendment has been that it did not leave Cuba a free hand in deciding her own destiny. The Platt amendment, however, has been adopted by Congress and accepted, albeit with a bad grace, by Cuba. No other pressure rests upon Cuba. If the people of the island decide to be a part of the United States, now or later, they can become such without any violation of the Teller resolution, which, at the beginning of the war with Spain, pledged us to leave her people free to form a government to suit themselves. The question for us to decide will be merely whether we want her for a partner, with a voice in our government corresponding to her population.

Massachusetts elections are seldom close enough to be interesting, and this year the Democrats stand absolutely no chance of beating Gov. Crane for another term in view of his admirable conduct during the past two years. Josiah Quincy accepts the candidacy of the Opposition now solely in order to be the party leader after Gov. Crane shall have retired a year hence, when conditions may be much more favorable to the Democrats. The real significance of the State Convention last week is the proof which it has afforded that the party has cut loose from Bryanism, and that the sober and conservative elements which gave it strength during the days of William E. Russell, and which were driven out under the management of George Fred Williams, are again in normal control. Massachusetts Republicanism has suffered from having the Opposition become contemptible, and the Commonwealth will gain by the return of Democracy to its right mind.

Complete fusion against the Quay ring in Pennsylvania is now assured. In a letter of admirable temper Representative Palm, who was nominated by the Democrats for State Treasurer, has withdrawn in favor of the nomination on the fusion ticket of Representative Coray, the candidate of the Independent Republicans. The State Committee authorized to make substitutions will meet in a few days and formally complete the ticket in the manner indicated. The fusion campaign will then begin, with what seems, at the outset, to be an excellent prospect of success. The evidences of revolt from the machine on the part of Republicans throughout the State are increasing daily, and altogether it seems to be a bad year for bosses in Pennsylvania. The discomfiture of the Donnelly-Ryan Democratic machine in Philadelphia is soon to be made complete by the appointment, by the authorized committee, of real Democrats to take the place of the Donnelly-Ryan representatives on the State Committee. The men who, under the name of Democrats, have for years been acting in alliance with the Quay machine are thus practically to be read out of the party. The days of their influence for evil in Philadelphia are over, and they will doubtless find cold comfort even with the corruptionists whose tools they were.

When Chairman Baldwin of the Committee of Fifteen last spring pleaded for the passage of the new Tenement-House

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Law in order that prostitution in such houses might be broken up, Tammany officials sneered at his earnestness and denounced him as a falsifier. The partial report just made by the Committee as to its work under the new statute is Mr. Baldwin's complete vindication. In the space of a few weeks it has secured conclusive evidence against women occupying 290 rooms in 237 tenement-houses in Manhattan Borough, and this does not represent "even a formidable fraction of the prostitution existing in tenement-houses in the borough." So successful has been the work of the Committee's investigators that complaints have been made to the Board of Health in 244 cases, and the offending tenants in 173 separate apartments have already been evicted. A census showed that in many instances an average of nearly thirty children to a tenement-house were subjected to the evil influence which Tammany has fostered through its connivance at prostitution under these conditions.

Comptroller Knight's report, in which he reviews the fiscal receipts of the past year accruing from New York's corporation, organization, and inheritance taxes, shows that the most productive of the three has been that on corporations, which has brought in $4,966,680; the inheritance tax standing next with $4,084,606. As might be expected, the receipts from the organization tax have fallen far below those from either of the others, amounting only to $293,856, this being partly due to the nature of the impost, but also very largely to the fact that the laws relating to the organization of corporations are not yet thoroughly understood. The sources of these large volumes of tax receipts are as instructive as their relative amounts, and it should be noted that over one-fifth of the total collected has been gathered through the agency of savings-banks and trust companies, which have turned in, all told, $2,104,132. Many suits have been filed by these institutions, with reference to technical points as to the application of the law to interest at different stages and to various sorts of securities, and when these shall have been settled, the receipts from such institutions will probably be yet larger. The report as a whole is most instructive in that it points out the important and highly productive character of tax sources yet untouched in most of our commonwealths.

The decision just handed down through Justice Kruse of the Supreme Court on the subject of advertising sign-boards in Buffalo will strengthen the hands of those who have been conducting a campaign against the bill-board nuisance. Both in Chicago and in Buffalo, ordinances have recently been enacted regulating the erection of such boards, and ordering the destruction of those not conforming to the law. Requests made by advertising companies in these two cities for injunctions protecting their boards from condemnation have in each instance been denied. No actual steps against the boards have as yet been taken in Chicago, but the special term of court called by Gov. Odell, at the request of certain citizens of Buffalo who wished to destroy the signs before the close of the Exposition, has resulted in a final decision of the court against the bill-boards. Justice Kruse's verdict makes two main points. He upholds the ordinance on general grounds, and waves aside the plea that, in the special case before him, the "system" of signs objected to could not be defined as "bill-boards." For more comprehensive reasons, he shows that, even were the ordinance defective, the order for their removal could be sustained should it prove that the boards are in fact public nuisances. That they are so is shown by their tendency to increase the danger of fire and accident, and to furnish a screen for disorderly and unsanitary conditions.

To what extent the Constitutional Convention authorized on Monday by the voters of Connecticut will remedy the gross inequalities and injustices in legislative representation, is problematical. To correct those inequalities is the motive for the calling of the Convention, which is to meet in January next, but the limitations on its make-up do not warrant expectation of any adequate reform. Constituted, as it will be, of one delegate from each town, it will be overwhelmingly controlled by the representatives of the little towns, which must lose some part of their legislative membership in any workable plan for a more equitable representation of the cities and larger towns. Such reform as may be had, therefore, will be measured by the sense of justice and fairness in the minds of the rural delegates. This sense has not been conspicuous hitherto, the dominating sentiment in the little towns being to keep what they have. But out of the selfish motive may come some measure of relief, if the rural delegates can be persuaded by the Republican leaders and newspapers that the way to preserve town supremacy in the Legislature is to concede a little to the cities. Much will depend upon the character and ability of the delegates who are to be chosen next month. Meantime, another gain has just been made. Hereafter Connecticut State officials will be chosen by a plurality of the votes cast and not by a majority, as has been the rule since the preceding Constitutional Convention in 1818, under which procedure the choice of State officials often developed upon the Legislature, almost invariably Republican. By still another Constitutional amendment, the Senate is to be made somewhat more representative in character.

It is gratifying to learn that the work of the Indianapolis Monetary Convention will be continued during the coming session of Congress, and will be directed toward changes in the existing banking system. According to Col. John P. Irish, the effort will be made to get such legislation as will tend to equalize rates of interest throughout the country by making possible the distribution of surplus capital from the business centres to outlying districts. Col. Irish sounds the right note when he says that legislation of this character "will have a tendency to obstruct the unsound-money campaign, which has been promoted in States remote from the money centres by the false cry that there is not money enough in the country to do its business." He is well aware that while the free-silver movement may be dead, the spirit that gave rise to it is certain to reappear as soon as any check to the country's prosperity, and particularly to that of the farmers, has been felt, and that the only thoroughgoing remedy for currency dissatisfaction lies in the supply of suitable means of turning property into means of payment.

We regard the publication of the United States Steel Corporation's monthly net earnings, by order of the directors, as a development of the very highest importance. Whether for good or for ill, the fact has been obvious, during many months, that the investor was turning his attention, more freely than ever before in our financial history, towards shares of industrial corporations. One reason for this—perhaps the main reason—was the extravagant price to which most railway securities of the higher grade were advanced at the opening of this year. Wall Street's way of describing the situation was to say that the larger capitalists already held the bulk of such high-grade shares. This was true only in part; but the existing situation was much the same as if it had been wholly true. From the average investor's point of view, the railway shares were too high in price to attract his capital; he was, in a way, forced to consider the industrial shares. That he did place his money in them very largely has been shown by the history of the great American corporations organized and "floated" during the recent period of prosperity. But behind all this evidence of increased willingness, on the public's part, to consider industrial investments, there has existed from the start a very formidable danger—the refusal of the companies to make their financial condition public, or at best to do more than issue an annual statement.

It is needless to explain why this situation was extremely dangerous. It

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necessarily became more dangerous the more extensively the investing public bought industrial shares. What might at some future time occur, through the tempting of outside capital into a company which refused to make known in any official form its real condition, has been forcibly suggested by the recent Copper Trust incident. But there has also been very grave reason to doubt the efficacy of annual balance-sheets alone. We do not refer merely to the dismay and astonishment with which a number of yearly industrial balance-sheets were received during August by investors. It is more noteworthy still that the old Cordage Trust at the close of 1891 showed an ample surplus on its balance-sheet, but went into hopeless bankruptcy only a year and a half later. How was the average investor to know, in the case of any company, whether the same misfortune might not befall himself? He had, of course, via the Stock Exchange, the word of "people close to the management." What this amounts to, the story of the "copper deal" is sufficient witness. The only safeguard worthy of real consideration was a full and fair exhibit of earnings for the quarter, or, preferably, for each month, with a showing of fixed charges, surplus, and disposition of surplus. The fact that this has now been officially adopted as the policy of the "billion-dollar Steel combination" settles the merits of the question. If this huge organization can prepare and publish such a statement, there is no other which cannot. In our judgment, the example set by the United States Steel Corporation will render hopeless any further effective and general resistance to the movement for publicity.

Good evidence of the prosperity of the farmers of the United States is furnished by the latest report of the English Mortgage and Debenture Company, Limited. This association, whose business consists in lending English capital upon American farm mortgage security, now announces a dividend of 10 per cent. on its common shares. During the past year it has realized a profit of over $100,000, and has carried a reasonable amount to the credit of the "reserve" account. Only a relatively small number of foreclosures have taken place, and considerable capital locked up in foreclosed lands has been released. The average rate obtained on farm loans has been 6.7 per cent. This situation contrasts very favorably with the history of some of the older English mortgage companies, which were forced to the wall after 1890. It ought to be added that the more favorable condition of the Mortgage and Debenture Company is not wholly due to the current prosperity of the United States, but also in part to the fact that it has confined its operations to States in which the loan market is settled and the security offered of known value.

Columbia's victory on Friday was by so narrow a margin that the best judgment is inclined to see in it a triumph for Barr's seamanship rather than for the boat. Comparing the concluding race of the series with the first, it appears that no two boats could be sailed more nearly on equal terms in light airs, and yachtsmen cannot be too thankful for Thursday's race in a half gale, which conclusively proved the superiority of *Columbia* over the challenger. Now that the limit has been reached in the development of the racing-machine, it is a question whether some attempt should not be made to return to normal yacht-building. The aim of such building is to combine with reasonable comfort and safety a maximum of speed. Beautiful and swift as the modern racing-machines are, no one would ever follow their lines for either safety or comfort. The fin is structurally a weak element, and the consequent reduction of the head-room makes for discomfort in all the living arrangements. The long overhangs are again a most vulnerable portion of the modern boat, and in a heavy sea-way actually dangerous. And yet, in spite of the obvious disadvantages of the Herreshoff type for cruising, many Corinthian yachtsmen are sailing in boats which, though too deep to enter our smaller harbors, would have, without an exaggerated deck-house, insufficient head-room. Is it not time for the New York Yacht Club to call a halt, and seek to restore to honor the real boat—the yacht like the great forty-footer *Mincrva*, which crossed the Atlantic under her own sail, scored a season of straight wins, and meanwhile accommodated her owner and his guests?

The current number of the *British Economic Journal* contains an interesting analysis of the now famous Taff Vale Railway case. It will be remembered that the decision of the House of Lords in this case was pronounced in favor of the legal liability of trades unions, irrespective of their actual incorporation. This decision traversed several previously accepted doctrines. It appeared to run counter to the express provisions of the Trades Union Act of 1871, which placed the unions on a separate basis by providing for their registration, and by exempting them from the special acts of incorporation governing companies, friendly societies, etc. They were by the Act of 1871—so it was supposed—placed upon a footing where their funds could not be jeopardized by the acts of their officers. According to the Taff Vale decision, it would seem that the House of Lords recognizes such a thing as a tacit or implied incorporation. The writer in the *Economic Journal* shows that such a decision, whatever its merits, violates accepted ideas on corporations. He suggests some curious corollaries of the decision when he remarks that under it clubs, partnerships, etc., would now have to be regarded as corporate bodies—an anomalous situation.

It is just short of two years since the Boer war was precipitated, yet that frank—that terribly frank—Conservative, Mr. Winston Churchill, rudely tells the Government and the English people that the military situation in South Africa is to-day "not less momentous than when the Boer armies threw themselves into Natal at the beginning of the war." In saying this he but reflects the universal feeling and anxiety in England. Gen. Kitchener comes in for a lot of condemnation, probably undeserved, and the War Office for a good deal more—richly merited, we suppose. But is it not a strange figure which Mr. Kipling cuts in all this business? He now comes forward as an expert military authority. What the Secretary of War ought to do, how the army should be reorganized, what generals should be appointed and what dismissed, the poet of empire knows perfectly. He is the infallible one. But where was his infallibility when he was shouting, two years ago, for the launching against the Boers of an army which he now admits was in a "rut of impotence, pretence, and collapse"? Even a poet going to war should not make war on his own consistency. After hallooing on the dogs of war as he did, Kipling should not turn round and abuse the Government because what he thought to be powerful mastiffs have turned out to be mangy curs.

Interesting light is thrown upon some recent tariff predictions by the reception that is being accorded to the new German customs law. According to the latest dispatches, the law, if enforced, will lead to reprisals by Austria-Hungary. The tone of the Austrian press is distinctly hostile, and emphasizes the threatening attitude of the Hungarian Prime Minister. In view of these facts the suggestions of a tariff union between Austria and Germany, made as they are at a moment when the two countries seem to be on the point of coming to blows, are peculiarly inapposite. Only one thing appears to stand in the way of the enforcement of the new law. The German industrial situation is already very grave, and would be aggravated by Austrian tariff reprisals, owing to the closeness of commercial relations between the countries. For the moment German conditions are at a crisis, due to the closing or winding up of one or two of the West German banks. The unwisdom of introducing any new element of disturbance is apparent even to extreme protectionists.

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TAMMANY AND "RESPECTABILITY."

What would have been pronounced inconceivable a month ago has happened. Tammany has nominated as its candidate for Mayor a man who has pronounced Tammany government "the most insolent and audacious, as well as the most reckless assault we have yet known upon the welfare of Greater New York, and of the masses, especially the less fortunate masses, of its people"—and that, too, at a time when Tammany was far less offensive than it has since become; a man who, only four years ago, advocated a non-partisan administration of municipal affairs, instead of the rule of the city for the benefit of Tammany which that organization always represents; a man who, so recently as 1897, supported the present candidate of the anti-Tammany forces as one who could be trusted to give the city such a non-partisan administration as he advocated. Disregarding the example of Mr. Orr and other men of high standing whom Tammany emissaries have approached, Mr. Edward M. Shepard has cast in his lot with an organization of plunderers masquerading as a political party. And yet it is becoming more and more clear to the moral sense of New York that the proper attitude, at this juncture, of any man who values his own character, and to whom the welfare of the city is dear, is an indignant spurning of a nomination for any office that Croker might propose. "Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing?"

Any man asked to lend his honorable name as a cloak for Croker's foulness ought, at least, to keep his eyes wide open; to look at the facts; to consult the past; and to make sure that he is neither cheated himself nor willing to cheat the city. For ourselves, we consider it impossible that a respectable man could take the Tammany nomination for Mayor, as things stand in this city to-day, without deceiving either Croker or the people whose votes he asks. Richard Croker will not voluntarily put an honest and fearless man in the Mayor's chair. As well expect a thieving bank cashier to hail the arrival of the inspector. Croker may easily seek the aid of a citizen of fair repute to aid him in retaining his imperilled power to prey upon this city, and plan to make of him a puppet or a victim later on; but the devil cannot dread holy water more than he would a Mayor who should undertake to rule with an eye single to the city's good. Therefore, as we say, it is a case for his nominee of playing false either to Croker or to New York. No man can serve those two masters; and however high his standing, however praiseworthy his motives, however honorable his purposes, he should know that he will accept a Croker nomination only at a fearful risk to his own character, and in the certainty that he is inviting a renewal of the city's calamity.

But how about Mr. Hewitt and his acceptance of the Tammany nomination in 1886? This is the instance which is always cast in the teeth of those who maintain to-day that a self-respecting and respected man would no more think of foregathering with Tammany than he would of making his home in a lazar-house. There is, however, an immense difference between the case now and the case then. In the first place, Tammany was not in 1886 the exposed and loathsome thing it is to-day. There was an effective Democratic opposition to it in the city, and it had to walk with some circumspection. It had been beaten in 1884 by Mayor Grace. Moreover, there was on the horizon in 1886 the cloud of the Henry George movement, and Mr. Hewitt thought, as many thought, and as proved to be the case, that the surest way to repel that thinly disguised attack on property was to work through the Tammany organization. He was elected, but what was the result of his attempts to give the city good government in and through Tammany Hall? Any man trembling on the brink of a decision to cast in his lot with Croker to-day should mark well what happened to Mr. Hewitt. He was thwarted at every turn all through his administration by the men who had professed to seek good government by means of his election, and was finally repudiated by them with open hostility and contempt. When so strong and brave a man as he, so far back as 1886, found the Tammany opposition to decency and reform in the city government too powerful for him to overcome, what could a slighter Mayor expect to accomplish against the Tammany of 1901?

The real spirit of Tammany is most clearly revealed in that part of the platform which concerns the administration of justice. During the past nine months the District Attorney's office, for the first time in many years, has been administered by an honest man working solely in the interest of the public. Mr. Philbin has been exactly the sort of public prosecutor that the law contemplates. He has pursued rascals and criminals wherever he found them, and without any reference to their political affiliations or influence. He has set a standard which no successor could well hope to surpass. He has earned the praise of every good citizen. But what does the Tammany platform adopted last week say of him? This:

"We denounce the conversion of the great office of District Attorney into an instrumentality for the harassment of political opponents, the carrying forward of partisan aims, and the terrorism of citizens and officials not found subordinate to the purposes of men who aim at the control of the community in its business, social, and governmental aspects alike. In the course of the present occupant of the District Attorney's office, appointed avowedly to advance the interests of political superiors whose purpose is to substitute for the will of the people of New York their own sinister determinations, we see not only a blow directed against the well-settled principles of American law and liberty, but the unveiling of a purpose, the logical consummation of which would be the establishment of a tyranny at once infamous and intolerable."

It is because Tammany, like the evil men and seducers of Scripture, has so visibly waxed worse and worse, that clear-headed men now feel that a respectable citizen cannot accept its favors without betraying both his own class and the whole city. In 1886 it might plausibly assert that it was a political party; now it is little better than a detected den of thieves. Its only definition of politics is plunder. So far from there being any possibility of its giving the city an honest government, the crushing of Tammany is the thing that must be done before we shall get within sight of honest government.

It is not a case of weighing the merits of one estimable gentleman against those of another. We are confronted by a system of public robbery, an alliance with crime, a city government organized bottom upwards; and how can a reputable man think it possible to become the respectable figure-head—the inevitable blind—of such an organization as Tammany, and still retain the good opinion of his fellows? We confess, for our part, that we do not see how. To put one's self at the head of the Tammany cohorts to-day is, to our mind, in the act to join the enemies of the city, nay, of civilization itself.

MR. SHEPARD'S APOLOGIA.

It is not often that a candidate's acceptance of a nomination for a great office consists of an apology for consenting to take it; but that is the irresistible impression produced by the proceedings at Mr. Shepard's home in Brooklyn on Monday night. The Tammany spokesman began with a noble defiance of the "calumniators" of his immaculate organization, as a proper preliminary to offering its highest honor to one of its leading calumniators. Then Mr. Shepard made his speech of acceptance; but it was obviously addressed, not to Congressman Cummings, not to the committee, not to his Tammany nominators, but to those life-long friends and associates of his in opposition to Tammany who have been painfully wondering for a week past how he could possibly justify himself for having lent his honored name to a company of political freebooters, which he himself had described as "the distintegrating, corrupting power that is undermining the very vital foundation of our civilization."

Let it be said at once that his speech is exceedingly adroit. We know no man who could have done better in attempting to reconcile contradictories. And we are bound to admit, also, that Mr. Shepard saved his reputation for sincerity.

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He retracted nothing of his avowed hostility to civic corruption, declaring that he had hated and fought it all his life, and was not going to leave off doing so now. He even spoke specifically of the Police Department, and described the sort of Commissioner he should name, if elected Mayor, in terms which were tantamount to serving notice upon Murphy and Devery that they must set their house in order, for their end is near. All this was courageous and satisfactory on Mr. Shepard's part, and shows that his heart is still sound. We wish we could say as much for his head. But we cannot shut our eyes to the intellectual confusion which marks his speech. In fact, he so completely ignores or obscures the great issues and salient facts of this city campaign that one can only compliment him as the gamekeeper did the nobleman who lamented that he was such a bad shot. Donald had seen worse. "But how can that be when I have missed bird after bird?" "Aye, but your Lordship misses them so *clean!*"

Mr. Shepard makes a clean miss in his attempt to raise partisan prejudice. First, he charges that Mr. Low's candidacy rests wholly upon "a partisan basis." He intimates that there has been a great change in this respect since 1897, "when President Low and I stood in the campaign" against Tammany. At present Mr. Low's candidacy is, to Mr. Shepard, "only partisan and factional, and in no proper sense municipal." Now to this it is only to be said that it is in flat contradiction not only of the platforms of the various organizations which put Mr. Low in nomination, but of Mr. Low's open and explicit assertion. Both they and he affirm in the roundest terms that the movement they stand for is not partisan in origin and will not be partisan in execution. But Mr. Shepard, in his passion for non-partisanship, has detected the falsity and treachery of all this, and has discovered that an edict has gone forth that "under no circumstances" will the Republican organization of New York support a Democrat for Mayor—a strange edict, falsified by the fact, which Mr. Shepard has forgotten, that the Republicans supported Scott for Mayor in 1890! But, granting that Mr. Shepard's facts and insinuations are well founded, with what grace can he fling at Mr. Low as a partisan, when he himself hastens to boast that he is "a Democrat through and through," and that he takes the nomination for Mayor in the interests of "the Democratic party"?

Nor can Mr. Shepard fail to see, when these present mists are off his mind, how vast would be the difference between Mr. Low's position and his own, after election, in this very matter in which he challenges comparison. Mr. Low could point to platforms laying upon him the mandate to conduct the city government in a non-partisan way. But Mr. Shepard stands upon a platform which flouts the need of change and calls for a continuation of present conditions—conditions which Mr. Shepard himself is compelled to admit are in need of drastic reform. "We have nothing to apologize for," said the Tammany Chairman of the Convention which nominated Mr. Shepard. It was a fulsome eulogy of Tammany as "sheathed in integrity" which he had to listen to from Congressman Cummings before announcing his own purpose to "destroy and punish" corruption in New York. These are but incongruities now; after election, in case of Mr. Shepard's success, they will become opposites impossible of reconciliation.

And this, after all, is the fundamentally unsound nature of Mr. Shepard's plans and proposals. He is acting in complete oversight of the tools with which he will have to work. His success will mean general Tammany success. That will mean a District Attorney, a Board of Estimate, and Aldermen banded to thwart and defeat him from the very beginning. Mr. Shepard appears to think that, from a benevolent idealist in the Mayor's chair, virtue will go out to regenerate the whole Tammany organization. The moral interchange of evil companionship is not usually of that sort. Tammany will be bound by the law of its being to denounce and oppose Mr. Shepard in every effort he may make as Mayor to cleanse the city. It will see to it that his fellow-officials are men who will serve it and baffle him. Indeed, it is more than likely that it will throw him over in advance, in the desperate attempt to secure the minor and county offices. In any case, it is clear to us that Mr. Shepard has made the great mistake of seeking ends without considering whether he will be in possession of the necessary means. Tammany as a means to reform is like a gambling-house as a training-school for the church. If Mr. Shepard were to work in the most effective way for the reform of our city government, he would vote for Mr. Low. The latter can do the job, and Mr. Shepard cannot possibly.

THE STRIKE IN SAN FRANCISCO.

Two murders, half a dozen deaths, three thousand personal assaults—one hundred of these so severe as to call for surgical treatment—the sacrifice of a large part of this year's crop in the surrounding country, of several million dollars in delayed shipments, and of more than half a million in wages—this is the cost of the war which has for several weeks been raging in San Francisco under the name of a strike. But heavy as have been the measurable losses of the contest, the sacrifice in more imponderable elements has been greater. The list of losses must be increased by the destruction of San Francisco's character as a law-abiding city, and by the rude shock administered to those who have sympathized with the legitimate claims of labor. The contest has now been terminated, thanks to the intervention of the Governor of California, after a conference with the strike leaders lasting for more than a week. His task had been lightened by the practical exhaustion of both sides, and the universal condemnation of the cause of the labor leaders.

Strained relations between employers and employed first set in some five months ago, as the result of a strike of machinists, and the ill-will generated in this comparatively unimportant dispute was fomented by a certain section of the press and of the clergy until it became general. Finally, the teamsters suspended work. This was in consequence of a letter written to a member of the Employers' Association by the Teamsters' Secretary on July 17. In this letter, and during the controversy which preceded it, the Secretary declined to permit union teamsters to haul goods for those who had in their employ non-union men. No question of wages or of hours was involved. Every reasonable demand had been conceded by the employers, and, most important of all, contracts, upon explicit terms, had been signed by both parties to the controversy. Nor had any new elements been introduced into the labor situation. Union men had for years been working side by side with non-union. Yet, in the face of these facts, the Teamsters' Association sacrificed its contracts, gave up remunerative work, and called out its men.

From the first it was plain that a resort to violence would be the only means of winning the contest. Men in numbers sufficient to take the places of the striking teamsters were at hand within a week. Had it not been for riotous demonstrations whenever a team appeared upon the streets, and had not the fear of violence deterred respectable men of family from working, the incident might have been closed within a few days. But street battles between strikers and police, in which victory inclined now to the one side and now to the other, afforded small encouragement to such persons.

It was not long before conditions were complicated by a sympathetic strike among 'longshoremen, coal-handlers, and others. Traffic in the city was almost wholly suspended. Loaded vessels were unable to discharge their cargoes. Sea-going ships failed to secure men sufficient to load their freight. Expedients of all sorts were resorted to, and Filipinos, Japanese, and university students were pressed into service. These expedients naturally developed the unsympathetic character of this sympathetic contest. Pitched battles between strikers and the police became a frequent occurrence, and hundreds of new men were brutally assaulted, many of

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them being maimed or permanently disabled. City government had apparently been suspended. An exciting political campaign, coming in the midst of the strike, seemed to have paralyzed office-holders, who feared the "labor vote." Mayor Phelan refused to recognize the existence of violence, and practically repeated the disgraceful history of McKeesport during the steel strike. It was difficult to find police justices who would return a verdict against strikers convicted of violence, and those already in office were renominated with applause because they "guaranteed the members of the unions fair treatment." Worst of all, the lawless and brutal excesses of the men were excused and even praised by a small section of the press and the clergy, which pretended to stand for the interests of labor. In the meantime fruit crops had been accumulating and had spoiled while awaiting shipment. A labor leader to whom the danger of loss of the crop was explained, and the imminent ruin of the farmers pointed out, returned the brutal reply, "Let it rot." It was not until efforts at arbitration had been made by various commercial bodies and had been indignantly rejected by the men, that the community saw the need of action. The organization of a special police force, the threat to organize a vigilance committee, the utter revulsion of public opinion from any shadow of sympathy with the men's demands, are all that has brought the agitators to hear reason, and has finally terminated the strike where it began, without the gain of a single point by the trades-unionists.

The story of the San Francisco strike is an epitome of many recent labor difficulties. It has the wretched preëminence of repeating the history of all the most disgraceful labor disputes of recent years. Not an outrage upon independent workmen but has had its parallel in San Francisco during the past few weeks. Not an instance of savage brutality but can be equalled there. Not a failure of municipal officers through truckling to the vote of an insolent union but finds an analogy in the government of the city. There is nowhere a more discreditable display of low methods in journalism than must be attributed to the San Francisco newspaper that has done its best to stir up a war of classes.

The San Francisco strike has, like the steel strike and several other recent disputes, been a strike for a principle—the alleged right to centralize the control of labor and establish an industrial oligarchy. The outcome of each contest points to one conclusion—the American public is not ready to accept the notion of labor monopoly. It insists upon competitive freedom. No strike based upon this issue can succeed. And by the side of this axiom must be put one principle for future enforcement—that of trades-union responsibility. No common carrier whose negligence had caused enormous loss to shippers could escape its legal liability. Then why grant greater immunity to an insolent union disturbing the business of a State and destroying the prosperity of a city by its outrageous efforts to establish a monopoly?

THE NEW EDUCATION OF THE ARMY.

In allotting $100,000 for the purpose of preparing Washington Barracks for the use and occupation of a War College and School of National Defence, Secretary Root has taken a first and extremely significant step towards placing the army of the United States upon a footing similar to that of European armies. It is the first announcement to the public that the far-reaching plans for a modernization of the service which have been forming in the Secretary's mind, are now approaching completion. It means that within a very short time the army will be as well equipped with professional training-schools as the navy itself. It means that a Secretary of War has at last been found with the energy and ability to put an end to existing wasteful and impotent conditions.

In every other country except China it has always been recognized that an army existed primarily to prepare for war. In the United States, until the war with Spain, the sole concern of the War Department was with the feeding and outfitting of the 25,000 troops which it controlled, and the promotion of their officers. The war with Spain revealed facts to the public which were patent to any one familiar with the system, or, more truthfully, with the total lack of system, which prevailed. When hostilities broke out, no army official knew how many transports the Government could secure, or where they were to be found. No one knew the military capacity of a single railroad or the terminal facilities at a single harbor along the coast. Although war had been impending for some months, no bases had been selected for movements against Cuba, no supplies had been ordered to selected points, no camp sites had been agreed upon, no military leaders had been chosen—in short, there had been absolutely no forethought. While the main concern of the Continental armies, for decades past, has been with their general staffs, organized to be the brains of each service, to think out every possible emergency, and to provide the means to meet it, our own War Department would not even recognize an emergency when it knocked at the door.

To remedy this situation has been Secretary Root's task. He found, on taking office, a civilian President practically commanding the army; a Commanding General such only in name and without proper duties of any kind; an Adjutant-General become chief of staff by force of circumstances and by virtue of unusual executive ability; a number of topheavy staff departments bound up in red tape, possessed of great political influence, and utterly defiant of any efforts to reduce them to their proper status as subordinate business enterprises; and last, but not least, a system of military education totally disarranged because of two wars. Although the choice of evils to attack might well have confused him, he is wisely giving his attention primarily to the question of education. He first addressed himself to the lower steps of the educational ladder by ordering the reëstablishment of the post lyceums, or barrack schools, in which officers are required to produce a certain number of professional studies each year. With this as the public school of his system, he ordered the re-establishment of the post-graduate artillery, cavalry, and infantry schools at Forts Monroe, Leavenworth, and Riley (abandoned at the outbreak of the war with Spain) upon a more elaborate basis than hitherto. The student-officer who does well in the post lyceum is to go to these high schools, which, in the case of Forts Leavenworth and Riley, will include a summer course in military manœuvres executed by troops of every branch of the regular service in conjunction with National Guard regiments. The honor graduates of these high schools are in turn to go to the War College and School of National Defence now to be established in connection with the post-graduate Engineer School at Washington Barracks, and intended to be the university of this system of instruction.

To reach this select army university an officer must plainly have shown unusual fitness or ability, just as the men appointed to the Berlin General Staff are those who have demonstrated their talents in the Bavarian or Prussian or some other war school or general staff. Once in the War College, the aspirant for army honors will deal with the highest problems in military science, in logistics, and in strategy. Just as has been done in the Navy War College at Newport, it is the War Department's plan that its picked officers shall work out problems of exterior and interior defence, of mobilization, and plan for raising volunteer armies or for any conceivable emergency.

With this War College once established, it is plain that the blunders of the Spanish war should be impossible of repetition, for the reason that there will then be officers whose business it will be to think of the most important matters with which no man concerned himself in 1898. There should not, in the event of war, again be those harassing delays which cost the Government such unnecessary millions in 1898, nor the mistakes of the fever camps which

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unnecessarily sacrificed thousands of precious lives. Every man should go to his appointed place at the first signal exactly as is done in Germany and France, without friction, without delay, and without suffering.

How great a change this will be from the army of to-day, as well as from that of 1898, the civilian can hardly realize, since it goes to the bottom of the army system, and even threatens the rule of favoritism and of pull which has been the bane of the army ever since the civil war. For the first time it will insure to the army officer an opportunity to rise on his merits and by devotion to duty, since the War College graduates will be the men to be selected for responsible duties and promotion the instant an emergency occurs. For the public this reform means that, if followed up, another branch of the public service will take its place alongside the navy as one honestly and efficiently administered in the public interest.

THE WORK OF THE CLEARING-HOUSE.

At the annual meeting and election of officers of the Clearing-house last week some facts of importance to the business condition of the country were made public. The first of these is, that the average daily clearings for the year ending September 30 have been $254,193,638, as compared with $170,936,146 for the previous year. The highest average for any former year was in 1899, which was a little less than $190,000,000. The largest daily transactions on record were those of May 10 of the present year, when they reached the enormous total of $598,537,409. The gain over the year 1900 has been 44 per cent.

Another fact of interest is, that, while the aggregate amount of the clearings has increased in the ratio indicated, the proportion of cash used in settling balances has declined. In 1900 the average daily balance was $8,981,716, or 5.25 per cent. of the clearings. In 1901 it was $11,600,784, or 4.57 per cent. In other words, it takes less money proportionately to do a large business through the machinery of the Clearing-house than to do a smaller business. Comparing the returns of the forty-eight years during which the New York Clearing-house has been in existence, we find that the average balances have been 4.77 per cent. of the clearings, as against 4.57 per cent. now. In the year 1854, when the daily clearings were $19,000,000 per day, the balances were 5.17 per cent. They are now thirteen times larger, yet the percentage of cash payments is less.

The Clearing-house is thus seen to be one of the greatest labor-saving machines of the modern world. It would be impossible to transact business on such a scale of magnitude without it. Prior to its introduction it was customary for each bank to send a messenger to every other bank each day with a passbook and a package of claims. Bank A would sort out all the checks and other claims it held against Bank B, and write the amount in the book on the debit side of the page assigned to that bank, and send the book and package to the latter. Bank B would acknowledge receipt of the checks and write on the credit side of the page the amount of its claims on Bank A, and would deliver by its own messenger the corresponding checks, etc., drawn on Bank A, and have the proper acknowledgment made in its own passbook. There were thirty-eight banks in New York at that time. So there were seventy-six bank messengers continually traversing the streets, getting in each other's way at the bank's counters, and in the way of the bank's customers, and liable to assault or accident. The balances were shown each day by the footings of the passbooks, but, on account of the labor of carrying and counting gold coin, which was the only money receivable between banks, the settlements were made only once a week, and then by actual delivery of the coin, which was also carried through the streets, at considerable risk to the owners.

Payments of clearing-house balances are now made with gold coin, gold certificates, or legal-tender notes. Gold certificates, when not otherwise defined, are those issued by the United States Treasury, but the New York Clearing-house has vaults for the reception of gold deposited by its own members, for which certificates are issued which are available in making payments at the Clearing-house. Here we note another interesting fact, namely, that the balances are now paid almost exclusively in gold. Of the total cash passed through the Clearing-house during the year ($3,515,037,741), all but $5,000,000 was gold certificates, the small remainder being legal-tender notes. In 1895 all but a small fraction of the balances were paid with legal tenders. Of the gold certificates used during the past year $3,000,000,000 were those representing gold in the Clearing-house vaults, and $414,000,000 those issued by the Government.

Next to the remarkable growth in magnitude of the clearings, we have to note the different varieties of clearings which are admissible in different places. In New York the only things admissible to the clearings are checks, drafts, and certificates of deposit or other valid orders on the banks payable at sight. Some clearing-houses, however, admit, in addition to these instruments, the promissory notes and acceptances of private individuals, which are drawn "payable at the ——— Bank," and which have matured. Others admit checks and drafts drawn on out-of-town banks which are correspondents of members of the Clearing-house. In some clearing-houses payment of balances may be made by drafts drawn on other designated cities, or partly in cash and partly in such drafts.

In Boston the practice exists of borrowing and lending balances among the members, on the floor of the Clearing-house, immediately after the day's balances are ascertained. Sixty per cent. of the balances are usually disposed of in this way. Thus, suppose that a certain bank has a credit balance of $100,000 at the Clearing-house, for which it has no immediate use. In order to save interest on this sum, even for a single day, it lends its balance to a debtor bank "on call," that is, repayable at demand. The creditor bank, in that case, gives an order in writing to the manager of the Clearing-house to transfer its balance, in whole or in part, to the borrowing bank. This practice is so common in Boston that the Clearing-house rate of interest is quoted regularly in the newspapers. These and many other varieties of Clearing-house practice are described in Mr. James G. Cannon's excellent treatise on 'The Clearing-House.' The New York Clearing-house Association has pursued a very conservative policy, both in the kind of instruments admitted to the clearings and in the method of paying balances.

The magnitude of the clearings at New York is truly indicative of the state of trade in the country. They are generally twice as great as those of all the other cities put together—a phenomenon which is accounted for by the fact that the other cities habitually settle their transactions with each other at this point. Thus, for example, the clearings of New York for eight months of the present year were $55,746,132,290, while those of ninety other cities together were $25,626,692,784. This means that New York is the financial centre of the United States, and that the state of trade in the whole country at any particular time can be best learned by observing the course of the exchanges at our Clearing-house. Judged by the figures just made public, the situation is most encouraging.

TRACKING DANTE TO INDIA.

Some historians are so keen sportsmen that they override, and the chase ends as with the animals in a circus when the pack, faulty only in excess of zeal, sweeps in ahead of the game. This image rises naturally in the mind as one sees the outcome of the hunt which started long ago to run Dante to cover. First he was tracked back to Greece, and then for a time he disappeared, but a decade ago the hunt began again and he was followed east as far as Persia. Thither a self-contained hunter might be willing to follow and there be content to rest; but of late, with a fresh cry of "hot scent," a noble hunter after nobler game has begun the pursuit anew. The noble hunter, Count Gubernatis, after a long chase *su le orme di Dante*,* dismounts at

* 'A. De Gubernatis: Su le Orme di Dante.' Rome: Tipografia Coöperativa Sociale. 1901.

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length in India, satisfied that he has at last tracked the stag back to the starting-point. Remains the question whether he has not overridden the quarry.

Sentimentally, it is a pity to admit failure here, for it is distasteful to see an Italian run down an Italian without need. But Count Gubernatis is an Indologist as well as an Italian, and what glory he detracts from Italy he adds to India. Still, he can but feel troubled in his patriotism, and though he comes triumphantly to the conclusion that Dante's poem reverts to India, and that one must "look for the origin of Lucifer only in India, particularly in Ceylon," he yet softens the blow to national pride: "Dante coglieva come ape il miele da ogni fiore; ma ogni fiore colto da Dante riceveva, nelle sue mani d'artista, un nuovo profumo, indistinto ed ineffabile." Doubtless. So that, even if history, "on the tracks of Dante," shows whence he started, it cannot thereby lessen what he is. For Dante, even granting that he did not make his own threads, and that (to take another of the Count's metaphors) *la prima trama di tutti questi tessuti* is Indian, is none the less the weaver and the Maker of the magic web.

But to grant even this is too much; and with no disparagement to the Hindus or to the Count's ingenuity (rather in praise of his ingenuity), it must be said, not for Dante's sake but for history's sake, that Count Gubernatis's contention will probably satisfy the Sanskritist as little as it will please the poet's admirers. Step by step, the argument is defective. What facts does it rest upon? The earthly paradise, according to Brunetto Latini, Dante's master, is situated in India. Pietro Lombardo speaks of it as "separated from our world" (just as Ceylon is separated from India!). Then Dante knows something about India, speaks of the Ganges, is acquainted with Oriental products, pearls and sapphires,

"Dolce color d'*oriental* zaffiro,"

and may have got the notion of the tree of paradise from the "tree of knowledge," Bodhi-tree, so famous in Ceylon (!), where Christians and Mohammedans find the "footsteps of Adam," as Hindus and Buddhists find the track of Rāma and of Buddha respectively. Then, again, the swamp of the "Purgatorio" bears a resemblance to a Ceylon swamp described by travellers in the East. Further—for what is lacking in Dante may be complemented by what is found in Immanuel Ben Salomo—there is the latter's pass to the Inferno over a bridge,

"ed un ponte mirai mobile e tristo,"

like the Persian bridge of souls and the Nala bridge, which once connected Ceylon with India.

Here it is well to pause and note that even the American Indian had a bridge of souls, and that the same conception is found not only in the Chinvat Bridge of the Persian, but even in Scandinavian and Chinese mythology, so that the Hebrew's bridge is not necessarily derived from India; not to speak of the fact that Dante has no bridge at all. And the other factors of the argument, as recounted above—are they not almost all explicable through Christian tradition and through Pliny, who has much to say in regard to India?

But this is only the beginning. Ceylon is the seat of the war besung in Vālmīki's epic, the 'Rāmāyana,' where is described how men and monkeys battle with fiends on that island. The fiends are those of all Oriental literature, the conflict one between good and bad spirits; and the hells of India's theosophy are the tortures of every-day life in the East. Out of dozens of such hells it is not surprising that some torments should coincide, but there is no special resemblance between the two groups of hells. Nor is there any special pit of hell in the Rāmāyana, as there is in Dante (Inf. ch. iv.), though the "blind depth" or pit is an early Hindu notion. Here, again, however, rises the question whether the Hindu King of Death is a necessary historical prototype of Lucifer. The *somiglianza* may be granted. Hells are much alike wherever found, and the King of Death is always a terror, but the Hindu Death is not a fiend, and the epic fiend par excellence is Rāvana, who is not by any means King of Death. In short, to effect a parallel it is necessary to compare Lucifer first with a Vedic god, the King of Death, and then with an epic fiend whose chief fear is death. Even with this combination, can all classical history be ignored in favor of Oriental legend as a source for Dante's conception? Was Dante quite uninfluenced by gigantomachias and titanomachias, but a copier of Vālmīki? Through what means? Count Gubernatis gravely says that *il dotto padre* Antonelli has calculated Lucifer's height as "over a thousand metres," and Vālmīki's fiends were four hundred cubits high, a coincidence which cannot be explained by reference to classical mythology "without the aid of the Hindu epic." According to Count Gubernatis, then, the idea of an Inferno, with its horrors and its Lucifer, came from India, through Syria and Persia, somewhat transformed by contact with "gnostic, Nestorian, Biblical, Talmudic, Mohammedan, and Christian traditions." To this the sober historian must reply that the Count has furnished no proof of such a derivation, and has not even made it probable in the slightest degree. The hunter, in a word, has overridden his quarry.

Dante was left (implicitly) in Persia, before Count Gubernatis thought to find him in India. Here the parallel is at least close enough to suggest the possibility that the Persian's pilgrimage to Hell and Heaven was indirectly known to the later writer of the 'Divina Commedia.' A Persian writer, Virâf, perhaps as early as the fourth century, certainly not later than the seventh, falls asleep and has a vision of the other world. The best one of three, who were in turn the best of the best seven of all the people, he had been elected by the people and then sanctioned by divination to see the wonders of purgatory, heaven, and hell (in this order). The record is not a poem, but a prose narrative without style or grace. Virâf is guided by God's messenger and the angel of fire. They take him by the hand, as did Dante's guide, and show him a purgatory of heat and cold (the Hindus, by the way, have no purgatory), a graded heaven with good kings in the top heaven, etc., a pit for a hell across a sad river (made by the tears of them that weep for their dead), in which hell a cold wind is blowing; and here are snakes, the eating of human skulls and brains, rending by beasts, suspension upside down, pressing with weights, foul smells, and inclement weather—all similar to punishments in Dante's poem.

Perhaps, as Count Gubernatis says, Dante's friend Immanuel knew of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh'; and Dante himself may have heard of it. Just so much history can affirm, and no more. For the only close parallels (the fact that each guide took each pilgrim by the hand, though emphasized by Gubernatis, is not important) are in the description of torments, as given above. In a few other cases there is a slight resemblance, but not more than would naturally be the result of working out the same conception. When it comes to verbal similarity, the parallelism is strained. Thus, the souls of the saints say to Virâf in Paradise: "How hast thou come from that perishable world of troubles, to this imperishable world free from troubles? Taste immortality; for here you will find eternal pleasure." And St. Bernard says (Par. xxxiii):

"Perchè tu ogni nube gli disleghi
Di sua mortalità co' preghi tuoi
Sì che 'l sommo piacer gli si dispieghi."

This is curious and interesting, but in view of the facts that it is the only verbal similitude between the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' and the 'Divina Commedia,' and that the slightest report of the former would suffice to explain the other parallels between the poems, each one of which, however, from an historical point of view, is perfectly explicable without the other—for the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' is based on Zoroastrian mythology and tradition quite as thoroughly as the 'Commedia' on classical antiquity—it is quite superfluous either to imagine that Dante had a *diretta notizia* of the Oriental work (even Count Gubernatis regards this supposition as *pericoloso* and *temerario*), or (with the Count) "to suppose that he had in his hands a European version, perhaps Hebrew-Latin, of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh,' as he most likely had in his hands more than one variant of the Hindu legend of the Seven Wise Men." Count Gubernatis, it will be observed, does not give up the old parallel for the new (which is his own). He still clings to the Persian origin of the 'Commedia,' but, going back of this, derives from Vālmīki's Rāmāyana the features wanting in Ardâi Virâf's 'Nâmeh.' When Virâf's Vision was first known, it was supposed to be copied from Isaiah's Ascent, till it was shown to be thoroughly national and based on the 'Avesta.' So it will probably be thought, despite the spread of Oriental sagas and fables in Europe in the Middle Ages, that Dante's own genius, added to classical mythology and mediæval tradition, suffices to explain the 'Commedia.' At most (for the Orientalist), Dante may have heard of the conception of Ardâi Virâf. That he knew anything of Vālmīki's work, or much more of India than did Pliny, is most unlikely. In sum, a comparison of the 'Commedia' with the 'Rāmāyana' shows only vague resemblances not indicative of borrowing, while the plan of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' is close enough to that of the 'Commedia' to merit, as a literary parallel, the attention of Italian scholars, even if there be no historical connection between the two works.

A SWISS OBERAMMERGAU.

BERNE, September 20, 1901.

Selzach is a pleasant little village of some 1,500 inhabitants, situated near the banks of the Aare River on the gentle southern slope of the Jura, a few miles west of Solothurn.

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Its inhabitants are chiefly given over to agriculture; but here, as in so many Swiss villages, the factory is gradually forcing itself to the front by the side of the barn and the granary, and the watch-making industry of the town is not inconsiderable. Though the bulk of the population is Catholic, there are a good many Protestants among the factory hands; yet the only church of the village, a structure going back to the fourteenth century, but renovated in the style of the seventeenth, is still dedicated to the old faith. Among the houses there are only a few fine types of the old wooden homestead of the Swiss farmer, with its spacious galleries and wide, overhanging roof; the majority are of stone and not particularly picturesque. Nor is there anything in the appearance of the neat, but ordinary, streets and squares of the village which would lead one to think that the townspeople were following anything but their own peaceful and humble domestic avocations. And yet, among these quiet and unassuming villagers there has been ripening during the last ten years an undertaking which, if brought to its final consummation, will give to Selzach a fame as world-wide as that now enjoyed by Oberammergau or Bayreuth.

It was in 1890 that the owner of the principal watch factory of the town, Mr. Adolf Schläfli, visited the Oberammergau Passion play, and, carried away by the impressions received there, conceived the idea of attempting a similar thing in his native town. As is the way with most enterprises before they have succeeded, the idea was at first ridiculed, scorned, ignored; but gradually Mr. Schläfli's unflagging enthusiasm and spirit of self-sacrifice, and the executive and artistic ability of his chief supporter, the head-master of the village school, who is also church organist and musical director of the local singing society, overcame all doubts and difficulties; and only three years after the plan of a Selzach Passion play had first been suggested, it could be carried out with a remarkable degree of popular interest and zeal, almost one-fifth of the whole population being in one way or another connected with its representation, and, what is particularly noteworthy, Protestants as well as Catholics taking an active part in it. Since then, the play has been repeated during the summers of 1896, 1898, and 1901, with constantly increasing success and with a constant raising of its artistic standard. At present it has become so elaborate an affair and has come to require so extensive preparations that, from now on, it will be given only at intervals of five years.

This is, in brief, the history of the religious spectacle which induced me, a few Sundays ago, to undertake a pilgrimage to the pretty little village on the slope of the Jura. We arrived in time to attend the morning service, which assembled a large crowd of worshippers at an early hour in the handsome village church. Probably a good many of the Passion players were among the audience; for, as we noticed later, even waitresses and domestic servants belonged to the performers. I was somewhat surprised, therefore, that the priest made no allusion whatever in his sermon to the coming event of the day. Evidently a play, even though it be a sacred play, was considered by him outside the holy of holies; perhaps all the more so since Protestants also had been admitted to participate in its production. There was time, before the beginning of the performance, to take a stroll over the surrounding hills, which afford a charming view of the wide, fertile Aare valley, with its wooded slopes and brightly shining hamlets scattered here and there. There was even time to sit for an hour or so in the garden of the Tavern of the Cross, take a glass of wine and chat with some of the villagers who, like ourselves, had taken this mode of preparing themselves for the spectacle to come. Here we learned that two militia men in uniform sitting at a table not far from us, a sergeant and a corporal, were the impersonators, the one of Christ, the other of Pilate; that both were by profession watchmakers, and that they were at present called into service for the autumn manœuvres. We also learned that the Virgin was likewise acted by a watchmaker, a widow whose husband had recently been killed in an accident; and that the innkeeper's baby, a charming little infant which we saw in its mother's arms, was on that selfsame morning to reappear as the Christ-child in the Nativity scene.

Towards eleven o'clock, the sound of trumpets from the various squares of the village announced the beginning of the performance, and, together with the crowd which meanwhile had been brought together by carriage and train from near and far, and which now was filling the little town with unwonted life, we made our way towards the Passionsspielhaus, an oblong wooden structure of barnlike appearance with a seating capacity for some twelve hundred persons, and a covered stage of some fifty feet depth attached to it at right angles. While the audience were taking their seats, the orchestra, which, in Bayreuth fashion, was hidden from view, played a few introductory strains from Haydn's "Chaos," preparing our minds for the opening scene of the spectacle, the Creation.

I must confess that the first part of the production, from the Creation to Christ's entry into Jerusalem, was in some respects a sore disappointment to me. I had hoped, if not for the popular gayety and broad impressiveness of the Alsfeld or Frankfort or other religious dramas of the fifteenth century, at least for something like the simple and serious dramatic effect of the Oberammergau play. But what was offered us here was neither popular nor dramatic; it was nothing but a series of living pictures, chiefly from the Old Testament, loosely held together by the loquacious and obtrusively didactic narrative of an all too officious Prologus, and accompanied by arias, recitatives, choruses, and orchestral as well as organ selections of a decidedly dilettantish order. In other words, it was a rather mediocre oratorio, interspersed with more or less objectionable declamations and more or less meritorious tableaux. By no stretch of imagination could it be called a play.

There was, however, even in this first part, one element of distinction: the living pictures. I have called them more or less meritorious; it would be more correct to say that, while nearly all of them were impressive, a few were of surpassing excellence. Remarkable in the grouping of the masses, in color effect, and in treatment of the landscape, were such scenes as the "Gathering of the Manna" or the "Sermon on the Mount," both breathing the spirit of the desert, both bringing before us solemn and varied types of man's yearning for a higher existence. Full of idyllic charm and clearly suggestive of a Memlinc or Perugino were such scenes as the "Adoration of the Shepherds" and the "Flight to Egypt," the Virgin particularly being the perfection of grace, delicacy of feeling, and dreamy pensiveness. And truly sublime was the "Annunciation," a scene which, moreover, had the merit of surprising originality of conception; for, instead of turning toward the heavenly messenger and responding to his greeting, the Virgin was here represented as breaking down in speechless awe, and, with covered face, committing herself to the divine mystery.

Even from this introductory part, then (and, by the way, it occupied nearly two hours), it was clear where the peculiar aim and merit of the Selzach Passion play were to be sought. Evidently, here there was nothing resembling the exuberant, turbulent life of the religious drama of the Middle Ages. Nor was there any approach toward the naïve, homely realism of the sturdy Bavarian highlanders. What we saw here was a conscious attempt to produce clearly defined artistic effects of the highest order. Considering that this attempt was made by people who, by profession, were either farmers or artisans or factory hands, could we wonder that it was only partially successful? Was not the wonder rather that such people could produce such results?

It was with feelings of this sort that we returned in the afternoon to see the second part of the performance, the Passion proper; and here our partial admiration was changed to unconditional surrender. What gives to this portion of the Selzach spectacle its unique æsthetic charm is the truly wonderful blending of a genuinely dramatic element with the living picture and the choral and instrumental accompaniment; a blending which, in its way, realizes Wagner's ideal of the combination of all arts in one common endeavor. The dramatic scenes are such as lend themselves naturally to a lively realistic treatment—above all, the machinations of the high priests against Christ, and the various scenes before Pilate. The living picture is reserved for moments of the highest religious or emotional import, such as Christ's leave-taking of his mother, the Last Supper, the Betrayal, the Crucifixion, the Resurrection. And chorus and orchestra serve to connect the action and the tableau and to give to the latter especially its proper setting. In this way a whole is produced remarkable both for its compactness and its variety; and I, for my part, am free to confess that few dramatic productions have ever afforded me as pure a joy and as deep a satisfaction as this part of the Selzach Passion play.

The opening scene, the Council of the Jews, is a decidedly clever bit of dramatic composition, which was acted with a great deal of skill and animation. The Sanhedrim is assembled in state; one member after another rises to denounce the demagogue, the rebel, the blasphemer, who is desecrating the Temple and disturbing the public peace. That the welfare of Church and State demands his being put out of the way, there is unanimity of opinion; the only question is how to lay hands on him without irritating the populace, which has been led astray by his seditious harangues and miraculous healings. Most opportunely there appears at this juncture a deputation of the money-changers whom Christ has expelled from

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the Temple, to insist on their legal right to carry on their business unmolested, and to prefer charges against the wilful reformer. The high priest assures them of the righteousness of their cause, incites them still farther against the disturber of their trade, and finally commits him to their revenge. With a universal cry of passion and rage from priests and people the scene comes to a close.

Beautiful is the contrast between this turbulent, tumultuous action and the two following tableaux: Christ's leave-taking of his mother at Bethany, and the Last Supper, both accompanied by most impressive choruses and solos, the latter (strangely enough) in part by the melody of Luther's 'Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott.' The unsectarian spirit of the whole performance could not have been more clearly demonstrated than by the fact that Luther's religious battle-hymn should have been sung here by Catholics and Protestants as an accompaniment to the most solemn scene of Christ's life. To describe these two tableaux is impossible. They were simply perfect—in the leave-taking at Bethany, an inner harmony and calm, in spite of the bitterest agony, which were beyond words; in the Last Supper, every one of the disciples a complete character, every one reflecting in his own way the feelings common to them all, while Christ seemed entirely raised above them, and yet to impart something of his divine countenance to each of them.

A powerful Miserere, consisting of chorus and solo, gave to this series of scenes a most impressive ending, bringing out the grief of God over his perverted, reprobate people, and the contrition of mankind over its lost grace.

My people, what have I done to thee or wherein have I grieved thee? Answer me!

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

I have led thee out of Egypt and have sunk Pharaoh in the Red Sea, and thou hast surrendered me to the high priests and hast thrown me in chains and fetters.

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

I have fed thee with manna and given thee to drink in the desert, and thou hast beaten my cheeks and hast lashed my body with scourges.

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

It would lead me too far to enter into the further development of the action. I must content myself with saying that, from here on to the end, the principle of composition—that is, the constant change between animated dramatic scenes, full of swift and racy dialogue, and tableaux of wonderful calm and beauty—remains the same, and that at last the Ascension dismisses us with the feeling of having witnessed with our own eyes, and of having lived through in our own hearts the eternal struggle of mankind with sin and corruption, and the final triumph of love and light.

As I said before, the Selzach play, as a whole, is by no means free from very serious defects. The text needs a thorough revision so as to be purged of many platitudes and crudities. The portion referring to the Old Testament should be shortened. The rôle of the Prologus should be curtailed, and as soon as possible be placed in more skilful hands. And, above all, the musical part of the performance should receive stricter and more effective drill and thereby be made less dilettantish and incoherent. In other words, the technique of the performance should in every way be raised to the level of the professional stage. If this be done, then the noble and pure spirit of the spectacle will shine forth with unimpeded and spotless lustre, and five years from now Selzach will give us a Passion play more artistic in its composition and more truly human in its spirit than any religious drama of our time.

The sun was setting behind the ridges of the Jura when we left the little village which, in the brief course of a day, had given us so much. Before us, toward south and east, there stretched the wide plateau of the Swiss Midland with its wooded hills, its green meadows, stately farmhouses, and gay, flourishing towns. And above it all, on the horizon, there stood in cloudless grandeur, towering against the evening sky, the whole range of the Bernese snow mountains, from the Wetterhorn to Jungfrau and Blümlisalp. The train was crowded with shouting and singing soldiers, returning from a day's furlough to their regiments in camp. They were of both French and German extraction, and in the most fraternal spirit sang alternatingly or even in unison of the "heiliges Vaterland" and the "chère patrie," of the "schwarzbrauns Liebchen" and the "jolie bien-aimée." They, too, as well as the noble religious spectacle from which I was returning, were a living proof of the essential soundness, vigor, and joyfulness of Swiss democracy.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Notes.

'Practical Life-work of Henry Drummond,' with a preface by Hamilton W. Mabie, is in the press of James Pott & Co., along with Saint-Simon's Memoirs, translated by Bayle St. John, in four volumes, and Miss Pardoe's 'Court and Reign of Francis I.,' in three volumes.

A Life of the late Dr. John Hall of this city, by his son, Prof. Thomas C. Hall, will be published by Fleming H. Revell Company.

'The Personality of Thoreau,' by Frank B. Sanborn, is to be most attractively brought out by Charles E. Goodspeed, No. 5A Park Street, Boston, with the aid of the Merrymount Press, in a limited edition.

Additional announcements by Messrs. Scribner are 'Unknown Mexico,' by Carl Lumholtz; 'The Literary Diary of Ezra Stiles, D.D., LL.D., President of Yale College,' edited by Franklin B. Dexter, M.A.; and 'A Hermit of Carmel, and Other Poems,' by George Santayana.

Prof. Franklin H. Giddings's 'Inductive Sociology' will be published directly by Macmillan Co.

The choice of Professor Woodberry for editor of the one-volume Cambridge Edition of 'The Complete Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) was inevitable. As naturally, he has made use of his labors on the 1892 Century Edition, placing his memoir here at the front as a biographical sketch. He has been well advised by the general editor as to omissions in Shelley's notes, and he accepts the challenge of his epithet "Complete" in the title by declining to insert the well-lost and ill-recovered 'Original Poetry of Victor and Cazire' (1898). In sum, this volume worthily extends an excellent series.

We have too recently discussed the character of Cromwell, in connection with Dr. Samuel R. Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth,' to make it needful to pass under review his compact direct biographical sketch, 'Oliver Cromwell' (Longmans). This work has already appeared in a more sumptuous edition in the Messrs. Goupil's "Illustrated Series of Historical Volumes." It would have been some equivalent for the illustrations (of which only Cooper's portrait is retained) if an index had been provided. The volume, of 319 pages, is convenient for the hand.

Mr. A. W. Pollard's bibliographical introduction to Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus and Heroes and Hero-Worship,' in Macmillan's taking "Library of English Classics," relates the fortunes of the former work, and shows how a public that was used to ask, "Who reads an American book?" was led to read an English book by its merit being first discerned and honored with publication on this side of the water. The text reproduced is that of 1858.

From John Lane we have a pretty volume of 'Shakspere's Songs' for which the excuse is eleven full-page drawings by Henry Ospovat. These are essentially decorative and will be valued as such, though not remarkable as interpretation.

'The Land of the Amazons,' by the Baron de Santa-Anna Nery, previously reviewed in these columns, comes to us in English dress bearing the imprint of E. P. Dutton & Co., having been translated from the French by George Humphrey. No additions have been made to the text, and the illustrations are the same as those which appeared in the original edition. While containing very little that is new, the work is the most notable contribution to the literature of the Amazon published in recent years, and will be welcomed by English readers interested in the future of this great valley.

The republication, under the heading 'Poverty and Un-British Rule in India' (Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), of old state papers and of addresses made during the last thirty years by Mr. Dadabhai (Naoroji) does not make a new book, though it puts old material together in a convenient form. Like some other reformers, Mr. Dadabhai believes that many "mischievous results" due to the demonetization of silver may be corrected by opening the mints "to the unrestricted coining of silver." This would have pleased that ardent English Anglophobe, Mr. Hyndman, who twenty years ago announced that the demonetization of gold over the whole earth would cure India's ills. "Un-British Rule," according to Mr. Dadabhai, is rule without representation. If Hindus were represented, they would reduce the taxes. There is, naturally, much discontent among educated Hindus at being kept out of all higher offices, but there is, in Mr. Dadabhai's opinion, no desire to get rid of the British oppressor, because "thinking Hindus" know that India's political and material advancement "depends upon a long continuance of the British rule."

The addresses delivered at Boston and Cambridge on February 4, 1901, in commemoration of the one-hundredth anni-

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versary of the appointment of John Marshall as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, have been edited by Mr. Marquis F. Dickinson of the Boston bar, and are published by Little, Brown & Co. A photogravure from the portrait painted by Henry Inman, in 1831, makes an appropriate frontispiece for this handsome volume. The crayon drawing made in 1808 by Saint-Mémin is also reproduced, and photographs of the gentlemen who delivered the addresses are superadded.

Prof. Arlo Bates has just printed a second volume of 'Talks on Writing English' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). His chief concern in the present series is for the niceties of rhetoric. There are some excellent remarks upon particles, participles and gerunds, figures, principles of euphony, and other details of composition, which, if not attended to, may prove pestiferous "little foxes" to spoil the vines of good writing. The work as a whole is decidedly healthy. It should be usefully suggestive to any person interested in writing, whether as art or trade.

Mr. William Harvey Miner has made a "contribution toward a bibliography of writings concerning Daniel Boone," which the Dibdin Club of this city has printed in a very limited edition ('Daniel Boone,' M. L. Greenhalgh, No. 1135 Madison Avenue). The introductory note is a valuable conspectus of the sources of information about Boone, who is still sadly in need, according to Mr. Miner, of a thoroughgoing biographer. He inclines to the latest view that Boone was a native of Berks County, Pa. The thin volume is altogether choice in its manufacture.

In connection with the bicentennial anniversary of Yale University, a series of volumes has been prepared by a number of the professors and instructors, to serve as a partial indication of the character of the studies in which the University teachers are engaged. In the volume of 'Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrography' (Scribners) are gathered a series of reprints, fifty in all, embodying the results of the researches in these lines. In point of time the papers cover the last fifty years. In subject-matter they deal chiefly with the descriptions and chemical composition of new minerals, only seven of them being petrographical in character. The mineralogical portion has been written or edited by Prof. S. L. Penfield, and the petrographical by Prof. L. V. Pirsson. It is not possible here to review these papers or even to mention the titles of all, but the following indicate their scope: "On American Spodumene," "The Chemical Composition of Iolite," "On the Chemical Composition and Related Physical Properties of Topaz," "Petrography of the Rocks of Yogo Peak," "Andesites of the Aroostook Volcanic Area of Maine." In addition to the technical papers, there are two treating respectively of the history of the mineralogical and of the petrographical departments at Yale. These papers, gathered from various scattered sources and put into permanent form, will prove a useful addition to the literature of the closely allied sciences involved. The volume is dedicated to the graduates of the University.

A bibliography of the principal geographical publications of 1900, both separate works and articles on geography and its allied sciences in the leading periodicals, the proceedings of societies, and Government publications, forms the September number of the *Annales de Géographie*. Its 908 entries are carefully analyzed and annotated by the editor, M. Louis Raveneau, aided by fifty-five eminent geographers of various nationalities. An examination of the different subjects shows that the number of titles relating to the United States—sixty—is greater than that for any other country, Spain bringing up the rear with three. An index contains about two thousand names of authors and travellers whose works are analyzed or referred to. Among the eccentricities of geographical spelling we note the use of the obsolete Ktaadn for the name of Maine's highest mountain.

The Vienna papers report that the pious desire of archæologists, who for years have been pleading for a museum in which to deposit the rich finds of Roman antiquities made in that city and the surrounding country, is now being gratified. The City Council took the matter in hand and appointed a special committee, which has now, at least provisionally, established a Museum Vindobonense, in a school building on the Rainerstrasse, where a good-sized room is already filled with bronzes, terracottas, and iron utensils, while the second room is a "lapidarium," containing, among other things, a sepulchral monument of the first Christian century, the oldest historical find made in the city of Vienna. The establishment of the museum has given a new impetus to research in this line, as is evidenced by numerous additions recently made. The museum is to be opened to the public during the present month.

The University of Giessen has made a contract with the Nordstern Insurance Company of Berlin, by which all of the students of that institution become beneficiaries of an accident insurance. Only those more liable to accidents, in the departments of chemistry, medicine, physical sciences, and pharmacy, are required to pay special fees for this, as the premiums for the others are paid out of the sick and hospital funds of the University. The measure covers ordinary risks, including riding, turning, or sword exercises, conducted by the official masters appointed by the institution.

—The *Atlantic* for October brings its articles on Reconstruction to a close in "The Undoing of Reconstruction," by William A. Dunning, and an anonymous editorial review of the whole subject called "Reconstruction and Disfranchisement." These are by far the best of the series. Our objection to much of what went before was that the writers seemed so often to insist with solemnity upon what no one denied. But here the history of reconstruction is summed up and presented to the mind in a few strong touches. The negroes were enfranchised, *i. e.*, put in control of the governments of the Southern States, a generation ago, in order to secure "the results of the war," among others, their own freedom. Their white fellow-citizens have now in thirty years taken away the franchise from them; yet there is a general acquiescence in the final result, and the best friends of the negroes see nothing to be done but to educate and improve their race until it is more near the level of the whites. No doubt, as is here pointed out, in any broad view of our period the peculiar consequences of Reconstruction are likely to be looked upon as part of the general reaction against Democracy. People who hate Democracy, however, do not discriminate as nicely as they might between the principle of popular government and the principle of universal suffrage. Fifty years ago, one might be a sincere believer in democratic principles and yet an ardent adherent of a property qualification. It is obvious, not merely as a matter of practice, but as a matter of logical necessity, that universal suffrage will work only in a community which is fit for it. We may add that those who argue, as many in the South evidently do, that because negro suffrage is being blotted out, therefore it is a good plan to spend $500,000,000 to subjugate the "niggers" of the Philippines, are guilty of a non-sequitur, as they will find out by and by. The *Atlantic* demands that the South *apply to both races equally* whatever qualifications for the exercise of the franchise, or for holding office, each State may see fit to impose. If this were done, negroes of intelligence and property might yet regain the right to vote. It is a perfectly safe thing to demand. During 1902 the magazine will go on with the subject, and publish articles written by Southerners, by negroes, and by "impartial students of American social conditions."

—The article in *Scribner's* which will, perhaps, attract the widest attention is Mr. Roosevelt's first instalment of "With the Cougar Hounds." The author is probably the first President of the United States to be at once a sportsman and a writer on sport. By the way, it is rather odd to find one who has been a pretty steady writer for twenty years speaking of "the book people" as a class apart. He points out that the popular nomenclature of wild animals often differs widely, not only in this country, but in others, from the scientific, and adds that in most cases "it is mere pedantry to try to upset popular custom in such matters." At the same time, he thinks it desirable to call the particular animal now in question "cougar." It is also known as "painter" (*c. g.*, panther), mountain lion, Mexican lion, and among Spanish-American people simply lion or puma. A second instalment of Gen. F. V. Greene's account of the Army brings us down to 1857, thus covering the period of the Mexican and the Seminole wars. It seems that Calhoun was the first American statesman, after Washington, to insist upon the futility of expecting a militia to answer the purpose of a regular army. "It was during his administration as Secretary of War that our true military policy was adopted of a small, but highly trained and efficient, regular army in time of peace, supplemented by a large army of volunteers in time of war." Yet, curiously enough, the three generals who gained the greatest distinction in the war of 1812 were Brown, Harrison, and Jackson. Of these, Brown, a farmer, elected militia brigadier-general, and without any military experience, served with a distinction which made Sackett's Harbor, Chippewa, Lundy's Lane, and Fort Erie names famous in American history; Harrison, another militia general, recovered and held everything in the Northwest that had been lost at the beginning of the war; while Jackson, the hero of the war, was certainly not an educated soldier, and Gen. Greene himself says that discipline (which to the educated man of war is everything) meant to Jackson nothing more than "the enforce-

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ment of his own will against those above him as well as those under him." The enemy he overcame were "the best regular troops in Europe, who had defeated the plans of Napoleon in Spain." The question is an old one, and will probably not be settled in our time. It is usually discussed too abstractly, as if it were possible to arrive at a theoretically best military system, without any regard to the circumstances of the country considered. Probably when the United States was a country of frontiersmen, the old militia system worked well, while as frontier life and Indian fighting declined, something more professional became needed. "La race, le moment, le milieu" applies to military as to literary questions. But it is preposterous to argue that a standing army in this country cannot be a menace to liberty. Militarism is the standing menace of every free government.

—The *Century* contains an illustrated article on "The Practice of the Law in New York," by Henry E. Howland, with reproductions of portraits by John Sargent. The full lengths of Messrs. Choate and Carter are interesting. So is an odd "chance portrait" of Mr. C. F. Southmayd, a lawyer of as high standing at the bar as the other two, though (not being noted as an advocate) not so well known to the public. Mr. Howland thinks, and very likely he is right, that there are as good lawyers among us now as there were formerly. But they do not go on to the bench, and, strange as it may seem, there is no court now in New York that can compare with the bench of the Superior Court in 1855, when J. S. Bosworth, John Duer, and Murray Hoffman sat upon it. But the article is mainly descriptive. So is John Mead Howells's "A French Government School from the Inside." In this Mr. Howells gives a very good idea of the atelier world, with its *anciens*, its *nouveaux*, and its *patrons*. The hazing and "fagging" seem to be very like hazing and fagging elsewhere, except that in schools and colleges *nouveaux* are boys, while in a Paris atelier the unfortunate novice may be a bearded man, in middle life. The manners of the atelier towards the newcomer are very much those of the Stock Exchange to a new member, but the humor of France is different from that of New York. One curious trait Mr. Howells notices, which he declares to be national, though we should imagine it rather a professional affectation —the proper "pose" is not to *seem* hard at work at any time even when you really are. Above all, avoid the appearance of seriousness, no matter how serious, selfish, ambitious, and eager you may be. "Do not so infringe on the next man with your importance or the importance of what you are doing." This is the very opposite of the gospel of "intensity" which was the Anglo-Saxon æsthetic affectation as caricatured twenty years ago. "A Grave Crisis in American History," by Milton Harlow Northrup (who was Secretary at the time of the Special Committee of the House of Representatives), gives the inner history of the origin and formation of the Electoral Commission of 1877. The notes of the committee meetings bring out the character of the principal actors in those scenes in an entertaining way. Mr. Edmunds, for instance, we find describing Judge Davis as "one of those Independents who stand always ready to accept Democratic nominations." We find Mr. Conkling, in a fine burst, declaring something or other—we do not quite make out what—to be "the *pediment* on which we rest." "Kick that from under," he goes on, "and we are gone."

—The leading illustrated article in *Harper's* for October is a sketch of tramp life, by William Sharp, called "The Hotel of the Beautiful Star." Tramp literature, of which the magazines have had for a long time a plentiful supply, is generally of a futile sort, and this paper is no exception. The art of giving us really attractive vagabonds and criminals seems to have gone out with Dickens. The tramp of our period is not at all "convincing." Mr. Sharp introduces us to one (he vouches for the truth of the story) who, a month after his discovery, is making from five to ten pounds a week by drawings and literary productions; six months later he has a picture at the Salon. According to the opinion of a police inspector here quoted, there are in London from May till September from fifteen to twenty thousand people without any "last or usual place of abode"; the average falling with the weather to a thousand, more or less, in January. "The New Psychology," illustrated from photographs, is by G. Stanley Hall, President and Professor of Psychology in Clark University. The photographs are pictures of the curious machines that make up the modern psychologist's "laboratory." Mr. Hall's description of this science will, we fear, seem to the laity (to say nothing of the clergy) rather materialistic. He declares, indeed, that this branch of knowledge "experiments on the soul," and "has made former knowledge of it definite, and added vastly to it"; but when we come to particulars, we find that laboratory work consists in such business as measuring with accuracy "the time required for a sensation to move from a finger up the arm to the brain, the time to transform it into a motor impulse, and the rate of the latter down the arm." We come a little nearer the soul when we learn the use of an instrument by which reactions in thought may be detected. The demonstrator says, for instance, "dog," with a lip key, upon which the attendant utters to another lip key the invariably suggested word "cat." So "boy" suggests "girl"; and "glass" ought to suggest "window," though on one occasion, to the surprise of the Professor, the word suggested to the attendant was "beer." Dr. W. E. Flinders-Petrie, the Egyptologist, contributes a valuable article, illustrated from photographs, giving an account of recent discoveries in the Royal Tombs of Abydos, and Henry James has a characteristic story called "The Beldonald Holbein."

—The recent discoveries in Crete are yielding immediate fruit in such essays as that which Mr. Evans has lately reproduced from the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, in a convenient volume of 106 pages, entitled 'The Mycenæan Tree and Pillar Cult' (Macmillan Company). This monograph is illustrated by enlarged drawings, mostly from Mycenæan gems, which, with Mr. Evans's commentary, shed the most interesting light on the primitive religious ideas and ritual of the peoples bordering on the shores of the Mediterranean. These gems represent the worship of sacred trees, of bætylic stones, of the "pillars of the house" and "the horns of consecration." They furnish a commentary on the pillar, or bethel, which Jacob set up; as also upon "the horns of the altar," the terebinth tree of Mamre, and the burning bush of Moses; and they exhibit the immediate ancestry of many survivals of tree and pillar cult on classic Greek soil. They explain also the heraldic form of the Lion's Gate at Mycenæ, and certain symbolic peculiarities in architecture. The Romans seem to be indebted to the same source for their cult of the Ficus Ruminalis; their *ancilia* present the Mycenæan form of shield, and their legend of the war-god's twins suckled by the she-wolf is paralleled by the attitude of an infant and horned sheep on a seal found in the Palace of Knossos. On the whole, the illustrations show the constant intercourse, the action and reaction, both east and west, that went on around the basin of the Mediterranean, from Babylonia and Egypt as far as Sardinia and Spain. They reveal also an indigenous civilization, subject to all these influences, but reacting on them in its turn, as original and distinct as the extraordinary wasp-like figures of deities and worshippers which characterize the gems and paintings.

—The late John Fiske's 'Life Everlasting' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) acquires a pathetic interest from the writer's death before its publication, though it was delivered at Harvard University as a lecture on the Ingersoll Foundation in January last. As James Mill's belief in God was shaken by Butler's 'Analogy,' it seems not impossible that some who go to this little book with a stout faith in immortality will come away from it with that faith perceptibly decreased. Frail, indeed, its confidence compared with that large utterance of the theologians which is the popular staple of belief. For the most part the book is an examination of certain objections to immortality from the standpoint of science. Those who can recall Mr. Fiske's early manner of dealing with the dogmatists, will be interested to observe how much of their tone, when dealing with materialists and the ultra-scientific, he had assimilated at the close of his career. We have first a vigorous appeal from the attempt to discredit the doctrine of immortality by a consideration of the character of early animism. The next step is to inquire whether the primitive belief in immortality was a permanent acquisition or something analogous to the appendix vermiformis and other rudimentary organs. In this connection Mr. Fiske passes quite too trippingly over the deductions from a universal belief in immortality that must be made on account of Buddhist and Hebrew recessions from it. The unsettling of the primitive edifice of faith by scientific thought is next considered. At this point we have too much of the personal equation in the assignment to Herbert Spencer's 'First Principles' of a character as representative of our time as Aquinas's 'Summa' of the Middle Age. The apparent physical origin of thought is resolved into concomitance of the physical and mental by arguments which are familiar in their general drift. In conclusion, there is some endeavor to allay the anxiety of those who fear that the Indian's faithful dog will bear him company. A direct argument for immortality is not attempted; only the removal of objections that leave the ground clear for considerations of philosophical analogy and moral probability.

—Some years ago, Dr. Tjitze de Boer pub-

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lished a study of al-Ghazzali's 'Destruction of the Philosophers,' which spoke highly for his knowledge of Arabic and his philosophic ability. A 'Geschichte der Philosophie im Islam' by him has now appeared (Stuttgart: Fr. Frommann). It forms the first attempt in this field since Munk's brilliant 'Mélanges' appeared in 1859, and, while it does not enter into such detail nor display such wide reading as De Vaux's recent 'Avicenne,' it covers with fair adequacy the whole development, from its beginnings until the system of Averroës passed over into mediæval Europe. In so small a book it was, of course, impossible to do full justice to all the aspects of a most complicated movement. It is, therefore, only a sketch which we have here, but still a most graphic and illuminating sketch. On the strictly philosophical side, Dr. de Boer is perfectly at home. He has breadth enough, too, to be able to sympathize with the frequent amateurisms and eccentricities of the Arabic thinkers. Perhaps he is weakest on the side of scholastic theology and mysticism. He has not remembered sufficiently that all the Arabic philosophers were more or less scholastics and mystics. It is, of course, hard for the modern student to have patience with such things, but it is through them only that the secret of the Muslim civilization can be read. Ritter's dictum that it is in the schools of the Muslim dogmaticians that the true Arabic philosophy is to be sought, is the last word on the matter. It is to be hoped that Dr. de Boer will in time give us a history of Arabic philosophy in the grand style, and will in it take account more fully of these influences and issues. There can be no question of his ability to do it.

THE AMERICAN BIBLE.

The Holy Bible. Containing the Old and New Testaments Translated out of the Original Tongues. Being the Version set forth A. D. 1611, Compared with the most Ancient Authorities and Revised A. D. 1881-1885. Newly edited by the American Revision Committee, A. D. 1901. Standard Edition. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons. Pp. xvi+970+xviii+296. 12 maps.

It was inevitable that, sooner or later, something of this kind should come. Even if the Germans are hardly justified in speaking of "the American language," any more than the Bowery tough when he talks "United States," yet, beyond doubt, very many words and phrases have come to be intelligible on one or the other side only of the Atlantic, and still more have become obscure and seemingly affected. The writing of an American scholar too often grates unpleasantly on an English ear, and the style of an educated Englishman too frequently strikes many here as stiff and archaic. Added to this, there exists in the masses of America little or none of that reverence for the past and its associations that is so powerful an element in the English mind. The American is prepared to make changes in a heritage of the ages on shorter notice and for less cogent reasons than the Englishman will ever suffer. To the one, the cadence of a verse that has been in his ear since infancy is sacred beyond the conception of the other; and that subjective sacredness holds him to lost critical positions in a way that, to the other, suggests moral obliquity or mental decay. The truth is, that his brain moves more slowly—it may be more steadily—and allows more weight to what, for it, are æsthetic considerations.

All this was made perfectly clear during the work of the original Revisers and on the publication of the original Revised Version. That appeared in the same form for both peoples, but there was added to it an appendix of American preferences which had been rejected by the British Revisers, who, by right of priority, were accorded the last word. This appendix showed both the types of changes spoken of above—changes to produce a different sense, and changes to more modern diction. It was published by agreement, the American Committee on their side undertaking not to give its sanction for fourteen years to the issue of any edition competing with those of the English University Presses. That limit has now expired, and it has become possible for the present, a specifically American, revision to appear.

But in it much more has been done than simply to incorporate in the text the appendix of American preferences. The attempt had been made in that appendix to reduce the points of difference to a minimum, in the hope that, eventually, that minimum might be accepted in England; the appendix had also to be constructed under conditions of great haste. But the hope of ultimate unity through this compromise has proved fallacious. Very many or most of the readings of the appendix have approved themselves even in England, but the University Presses have not seen their way to any further changes. Nor does it seem probable that such will come. Confessedly, the Revised Version has not been a popular success, and King James's still more than holds its own. The drift now is towards private translations to be used as commentaries on the classical English version. There is a tendency to give that version a hieratic place for ecclesiastical use, in a sense like the Latin Vulgate in the Church of Rome, and to regard as hopeless the attempt at one version which will suffice at once for devotional and critical purposes.

But there is more faith in America, and so we have this renewed adventure. Dubious as we are of its success, we welcome its appearance in the field. One thing it undoubtedly will accomplish: it will be another blow to the implicit trust with which so many, even ministers of religion and students of theology, take their English Bibles, deifying what is not even an original text, but only a most ordinary translation. Those set by the Church to teach will be forced to consider for themselves what are the words which they will put before their people as divine; and perhaps in time even the students in theological seminaries may perceive that, before they dare to use a text, they must have some thread of connection with it in its original form. Before 1881 such used with calmness and great peace of mind the Authorized Version. Thereafter, the more adventurous turned to the Revision, and were equally slavish in their use of it. Now there are two Richards in the field, and it will be of interest to see what searchings of heart will arise. More than this, and this is much, will hardly be accomplished.

It remains, however, to estimate what degree of care, scholarship, and discretion have been applied to the preparation of this recension. That the patient labor expended on it has been great is manifest. That it has been directed by good sense, a fine feeling for English, and thoroughness in scholarship is not so clear. Naturally, it is necessary to make distinctions, and a broad line of cleavage seems to divide the New Testament generally from the Old. That is manifest even in the respective prefaces. That to the New Testament is a model of unimpeachable English, devout and reverent in its tone, conservative and cautious in its attitude. As to the text which follows it, such unsightly eccentricities as the semicolon and dash in the title to the Gospel according to Matthew should have been avoided, even if it had called for the expenditure of a special title-page for the Gospels. Similarly, "Wise-men" (so hyphenized), in the second chapter of Matthew, as a rendering for *Magi*, can hardly hope to live. The translation of the equivalent Hebrew—equivalent at least according to the marginal reference—is printed, Esther i., 13, Dan. ii., 12, as two words, and without capitals. But of such freaks there are few, and the English Revised Version is substantially reproduced.

The case is different when we come to the Old Testament. That the Revised Version of it needed further revision is certain. Whatever may have been the reason, the English Revisers left it in very sorry case, as compared with the New. Their New Testament is a fair equivalent for the Westcott and Hort Greek text; their Old Testament corresponds to nothing in earth or heaven, not even the Inerrant Original of apologetic hypothesis. It was a compromise and a flat failure. The marvel is that so much poor Hebrew and timid criticism should have come from the Committee in the Jerusalem Chamber. It was, then, open to the American Committee to take up their spoiled work and do it afresh.

Again the preface is significant of the event. Both the tone of mind which it represents, and the English in which it is cast, are different from those exhibited in the preface to the New Testament. The English may well raise a doubt as to the stylistic competence of its writer or writers. Nor is the doubt laid when we turn to the text itself. Here are "only a few of the many instances of phraseology which there is the best reason for emending" (p. iv. of preface). In Exodus xxx., 38, the English Version (the subject is the holy incense) read, "Whosoever shall make like unto that, to smell thereto, he shall be cut off from his people." This is surely plain enough, although "thereat" instead of "thereto" might be more modern. The new recension changes to "thereof," and raises the possibility that the unhappy one in question will use the incense to make himself odorous withal. "To smell of" in the sense "to snatch at a whiff of odor from" is common in "the American language," but unknown in wider English. Similarly, the new recension shies at the wording of I. Kings, xxii., 5, "Inquire at the word of the Lord," and substitutes, "Inquire for." Yet "at" in this case, if archaic, is also more exact. "For" introduces an intermediary to be asked, and all that Jehoshaphat really said was, "Seek the word of Yahwé." Again, it is the merest wantonness of logical grammar to change Proverbs xxvii., 3, "But a fool's vexation is

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heavier than them both" to "than they both." Finally, for this time, Numbers v., 30, "and he be jealous over his wife," has stirred mighty doubts, and "over" is changed to "of." "Over," it may admitted, is archaic for "with regard to" or "about," but "of" is simple nonsense. The man is jealous "of" some other man, not of his wife.

Such are four out of the five examples in the preface, paragraph 5, page vi., "of the many instances of phraseology, etc." Yet we must add two further examples of such changes for the light which they cast on the methods and attitude of our revisers. For one thing, we learn that we must no longer speak of "spoiling the Egyptians." To spoil means nowadays to lay waste, ruin, or destroy, and, therefore, our word must be "despoil" (Exodus xii., 36). Americans have always been supposed to possess a peculiar sense of humor; the non-American world will now reconsider that point. For the second, "bolled" (Exodus ix., 4, misprint for 31), is classed in the preface, p. vi., as a term "obsolete, obscure, and ambiguous." In its place in the text we read "in bloom." It is perfectly true that "bolled" is obscure, but it is not obsolete or ambiguous. In provincial English it means "podded for seed" or "having the seed-vessels formed," and exactly that is one view which has been taken of the meaning of the original. The LXX. translate the Hebrew *gibh'ōl* by σπερματίζον, and the English revisers followed the LXX. "In bloom," on the other hand, expresses the Talmudic view of the meaning of *gibh'ōl*, and is not a modern, clear, and unambiguous synonym of "bolled"; it is a different translation entirely.

But we may pass from changes that are purely verbal, or supposed to be so, to such as express a different sense. The most conspicuous of these is the consistent rendering of Jehovah in all places where *Yahwé* (*Adhōnāy*) stood in the Hebrew text and had been hitherto rendered into English, "the Lord," "Lord," or "God." This change can be amply justified, but it is hard to see why Adhōnāy (*e. g.*, Ezek. xxviii., 22) is rendered "the Lord" and not "my Lord." That the *termination continued in Biblical times* to have the force of the possessive seems pretty clearly made out. Again, there are certain places (*e. g.*, Gen. ii., ff.) where, through textual conflation, Jehovah and God have come to stand together. That combination is here translated quite simply, "Jehovah God." What that will mean to the unsophisticated reader gives us pause. The Hebrew who had lost the sense of its being a conflate reading, probably took the "God" as epexegetic, "Jehovah, *i. e.*, God." But to produce that effect in English a comma, at least, should have been inserted between the two words. Of minor changes the multitude is so great that we can take almost no account of them. Very many are distinct improvements; some are certainly not. The change of *çalmāweth* from "shadow of death" to "thick darkness" cannot be justified. The possibility in Semitic of such a form and idea has been amply proved of late, and the Hebrew usage and parallelism seem to demand that sense for the word. So, too, in Ecclesiastes ii., 8, "men-singers and women-singers" is highly improbable against "concubines very many." But at this point we are cast into the chaos of variant interpretations, and, as suggested above, the final value of this recension will probably be that it will compel the theological student to find a footing for himself, and a reason for the philological faith that may be in him.

Yet, many as are the changes here, much more might and should have been done. To take the beginning of all things, we still await an English version that will translate grammatically the first three verses of Genesis. Similarly, we still await a correct translation of the first three words of Gen. iii., and of the first two of Gen. iv. So, too, Gen. ii., 19, is still in its grammatical misery. It is strange that eminent Hebraists, while they bestow unlimited pains on difficult poetical passages and on matters of the higher criticism, continue to countenance the most shrieking blunders in simple historical prose.

Another point in which the new Revisers have been lamentably deficient is in their treatment of the versions. In that, they have made a great step backwards. The English Revisers recognized that the Massoretic text was corrupt, at least in certain places, and that the versions had preserved, again in certain places, the true reading. They also recognized the existence in the versions of probable corrections of the text. These were indicated on the margin as the readings of "some" or "many ancient versions." This was not very much, but it at least put on record the value and use of the versions. The new Revisers, on the other hand, appear to have gone back solidly to the Massoretic text, and given up the use of the versions as, at present or for always, hopeless. Their texts cannot be certainly verified, and we cannot get beyond plausible conjecture in making use of them to correct the Hebrew text. So only one-sixth of the marginal references to them in the English revision are retained, but these are made specific as to the particular version meant. All this is unfortunate in the highest degree, and it is hard to understand how any body of Hebraists could be found at the present day to take up such a position. That the texts of the versions are corrupt is unhappily true; that they are corrupt to an unusable degree is not true. On the other hand, the Hebrew text is much more than "probably corrupt here and there." It is certainly corrupt in very many passages, and to a degree that we are only gradually realizing. Our only sound hope of correcting it is through the versions; otherwise we must make use of simple conjecture. To reject this is to fall back into absolute textual skepticism.

The present revision has been equipped throughout with marginal references to parallel and illustrative passages. These are not too numerous and are most clearly arranged; nothing but continuous use can determine their value. Topical headings have also been added—a much more dubious enrichment. In all but historical matters, theological exegesis is bound to creep in. In this case, that is abundantly evident in the headings to Ecclesiastes and the Song of Solomon. In the first, we read of "piety," "charity," "industry," "hope," all words which Qoheleth would have regarded somewhat askance. In the second, we have not any longer, it is true, the converse of Christ and the Church, but we have a very definite theory of the structure of the book.

It would be hard to praise too highly the printing and general get-up of this volume. But we must confess to disappointment with its contents.

RECENT WORK IN CHAUCER.

The Wife of Bath's Tale: Its Sources and Analogues. By G. H. Maynadier. (Grimm Library, No. 13.) London: David Nutt.

Chaucer's Franklin's Tale. By William Henry Schofield. Baltimore: Reprinted from the Publications of the Modern Language Association of America.

The Sources of The Parson's Tale. By Kate Oelzner Petersen. (Radcliffe College Monographs, No. 12.) Boston: Ginn & Co.

The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, The Knightes Tale, The Nonnes Prestes Tale. Edited in critical text, etc., by Mark H. Liddell. Macmillan.

The Prologue, The Knight's Tale, and The Nun's Priest's Tale. Edited by Frank Jewett Mather, jr. (Riverside Literature Series.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Maynadier's book is of interest to a considerable variety of readers. For some years it has been known to the learned that an Irish story, extant in several versions, affords the plot of Chaucer's "Tale of the Wife of Bath"; but no one has hitherto ventured to grapple with the problem resulting from this curious discovery. The general presumption that everything in Middle English is based on Latin, French, or Italian is firmly rooted in the minds of all scholars. These Irish texts, however, give pause to such an assumption in the present case, and investigators have contented themselves with a Fabian policy. Mr. Maynadier deserves much credit for his courage in reopening the matter, and for the ingenuity and acumen with which he has conducted his investigations. His moderation, and the frankness with which he considers all sorts of possibilities, are prepossessing, and we imagine that his main results will meet with pretty general acceptance among those best qualified to pass judgment. He decides that, in the group of stories to which "The Wife's Tale" and its analogues in Gower and elsewhere belong, we have a strong case for the transmission of literary material from Irish to English without French intermediaries. This is his principal thesis, and it is well maintained. Its significance with regard to several moot points in mediæval literature will not escape our readers.

Apart from his main thesis, Mr. Maynadier's plan requires him to determine the literary relations of all extant forms of the type to which Chaucer's tale belongs. Here there are many hypotheses, and some of the results are necessarily provisional, but the qualities to which we have adverted stand the author in good stead. His genealogical table may perhaps be corrected in some of its details, as time goes on, but it can hardly be modified in anything essential. Incidentally, Mr. Maynadier refutes some of the arguments of Prof. Bugge with respect to the Helgi poems in the Elder Edda. Despite its learning and the detail inseparable from such a study, the book is unusually readable. The author never forgets that he is dealing with literature. He manifests a fine appreciation of the charm investing these oft-told

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tales which the world has always been so ready to hear.

Mr. Schofield's paper is likewise excellent reading. He finds the kernel of "The Franklin's Tale" in a shadowy legend of Arviragus and Genuissa preserved by Geoffrey of Monmouth. This legend, he supposes, was worked up as a Breton lay, which reached Chaucer in a French version. The Oriental parallels cited by Clouston and others may seem to contravene this theory, but, as Mr. Schofield shows, they by no means invalidate it. The lays are full of material not originally Celtic, and the combination of two stories, widely different in source, is no strange phenomenon. Demonstration is impossible, and we should be unreasonable to require it. Mr. Schofield writes with a complete mastery of the subject, and makes out as strong a case as the nature of the question allows. The results of his previous investigations in mediæval romance have been widely accepted, and we anticipate a similar good fortune for the present paper.

Miss Petersen's monograph is the modest record of a remarkable discovery. Heretofore "The Parson's Tale" has usually been regarded as based upon the 'Somme des Vices et des Vertus' of Frère Lorens, though Professor Liddell, in the Furnivall Volume, has advanced a different theory. Miss Petersen, who is deeply versed in the confessional and penitential writers of the Middle Ages, finds that the Parson is indebted to two works—the third book of Raymund of Pennaforte's 'Summa Casuum Pœnitentiæ' and the Summa seu Tractatus de Viciis' of Guilielmus Peraldus. These important treatises were the ultimate sources of "The Parson's Tale." The immediate source remains to be discovered, but Miss Petersen is on the track of it. In her opinion—which is entitled to all respect—it will turn out to be a glossed copy of Raymund into which the substance of Peraldus's tractate has been inserted. We have no hesitation in pronouncing Miss Petersen's monograph one of the most remarkable contributions to Chaucerian scholarship that have been made of recent years.

We do not make a practice of reviewing text-books, but we must record the appearance of Professor Liddell's edition of the "Prologue," "The Knight's Tale," and "The Nun's Priest's Tale," which is distinguished by the care bestowed upon the text and by a learned essay on Chaucer's language. Professor Mather's edition of the same poems, which appeared some two years ago, is provided with a literary introduction, the lack of which is a defect in Professor Liddell's volume. An edition combining the excellences of these rival candidates for popular favor would make a first-rate introduction to the study of Chaucer.

The New South Africa: Its Value and Development. By W. Bleloch. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

However offensive we may find the spirit with which the author of this volume regards the subjugation of the Boers, we cannot deny that he takes a broad view of the methods by which their former possessions are to be made remunerative. Assuming that all resistance is crushed, and that the English are in full control of the territory of the two republics, the problem which Mr. Bleloch attacks is the estimation of the resources of the country and their systematic exploration. He has certainly taken great pains to collect information from many sources, and his descriptions of particular regions are almost as detailed as those in Baedeker's guide-books. Many of them are quoted from official reports, and the opinions of eminent geologists, engineers, and other experts are constantly cited. Altogether, the book appears to be as carefully prepared a catalogue of the resources of the provinces as could be wished. Nevertheless, it is founded largely upon guesses, while its proposed scheme of government is open to much criticism. If the new rulers would do precisely what Mr. Bleloch tells them is necessary, doubtless the result would be admirable. But there is no reason to suppose that proconsuls will be better in South Africa than they have been elsewhere.

As to the quantity of gold in the Transvaal rocks, there are many expert opinions, between which it would be dangerous to discriminate. By a process that suggests the familiar method of "guessing at half, and multiplying by two," Mr. Bleloch reaches the conclusion that the amount of gold in the Witwatersrand may be computed, "after vigorous pruning and a final deduction of 25 per cent., to prevent any possibility of overestimate," to be of the value of £2,-153,382,938. By including the rest of the gold-bearing area of the Transvaal, this sum is raised to 3,000 or even 4,000 millions of pounds sterling. It thus appears that the territory was worth fighting for as plunder, provided its resources are well managed.

That the system of granting mining rights adopted by the Transvaal Government was not in all respects wise, is clearly demonstrated. It was certainly better than that which has generally prevailed in our own country, in that it followed the common-law rule that ownership of land extends downward in perpendicular planes from the superficial boundaries. The principle that when a man strikes a productive vein he may follow it under his neighbor's property has produced endless quarrels, and has no standing in equity. But the requirement of an annual license fee, amounting for the ordinary prospector to five shillings a month for every claim, has resulted in throwing the auriferous lands into the possession of large capitalists. The conditions are such that at least 100 claims are required for an average mine on the Rand, and a much larger area is necessary for prospecting. No poor man, no weak company, can pay such fees on land that, perhaps, in nine cases out of ten has no value; for it is expensive business to get down to the reef and to work the mine after it is opened. Of course, many poor men and many feeble companies have made the experiment, but they have invariably found that when their claims proved to contain gold, it could not be extracted without the expenditure of a great deal of money. Hence there was nothing to do but to sell their claims, which they could do only to the few powerful "syndicates" that were prepared to manage large enterprises. Of course, the monthly license fees constituted a steady pressure on weak holders. Moreover, the valuable "owners' rights," which include a share in the proceeds of license fees, can, as a rule, be acquired only by large capitalists. Mr. Bleloch proposes that the law should be amended by allowing greater freedom in prospecting and by reducing the license fees. The rights of owners of land to the gold which it contains are also to be severely curtailed for the benefit of the Government, which is to obtain further revenue by taxing the dividends made by mining companies. He considers, however, that the Government would obtain such large sums through its appropriation of the rights now enjoyed by the owners of the land, as to make other taxation unimportant. Nevertheless, he proposes an elaborate scheme which contains most of the odious features devised by the rulers of Europe to support their armaments. The people of England pay an income tax of a shilling in the pound, and it would be unfair, according to Mr. Bleloch, to allow their enemies, "who have caused the war, to get off scot-free." The hut tax levied on the natives should be doubled. The "death duties" should be introduced, and the land tax increased. The revenue thus obtained would be sufficient to pay the interest on £40,-000,000, or one-third of the cost of the war. It should be added that the Transvaal Government was undoubtedly extravagant, and that much revenue could be saved that has been wasted. The dynamite monopoly should be abolished, and railway-freight charges reduced, so that, after all, the mining industry might be less heavily burdened than heretofore.

On the whole, Mr. Bleloch makes out a very plausible case for the future prosperity of the Transvaal, and, even allowing his estimates to be too sanguine, his anticipations may be eventually realized. He presents many interesting facts concerning the agricultural resources of the country, and dwells on its wealth of minerals other than gold. His book is of far more value than most of those which treat of South African conditions, and it deserves the attention of those who are interested in the future of that region. We are at liberty to question his inferences, but his statements of fact have every appearance of trustworthiness.

La Noblesse Française sous Richelieu. Par le Vicomte G. d'Avenel. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

The Vicomte Georges d'Avenel, whose 'Richelieu et la Monarchie Absolue' is the standard work on the internal condition of France during the reign of Louis XIII., has added to the obligations of students by publishing a sketch of aristocratic life at that time. But here he does not write for students alone. Any one who can read the copious and sprightly memoirs of seventeenth-century France will be delighted with a book which, while dealing with general subjects rather than individual careers, is based for the most part on autobiographies. And although M. d'Avenel at times draws freely on his former volumes, he has gained force by compression.

It is quite conceivable that a book might be written on the measures by which Richelieu resisted the plots of the nobles. The execution of Marillac and Montmorency are only the most celebrated incidents in his policy of repressing such powers as could be used against the crown. But the Cardinal's dealings with the aristocracy do not furnish the main motive of M. d'Avenel's essay. Richelieu is, indeed, mentioned at frequent intervals; yet, if all the allusions to him were removed, the general charac-

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ter of the work would not be seriously affected. In other words, the intrigues of the nobles against the Government, and their political aspirations, are much less accentuated than their social rights and duties, their revenues and their expenses, their spirit and their legal status.

One point upon which M. d'Avenel insists very strongly is the mildness of the *corvées* and *banalités*. He holds that the degree of oppression which they entailed has been much exaggerated. After reading many *cahiers* of the estates, pamphlets, and broadsides, he has become convinced that the feudal services of the seventeenth century entailed no excessive hardship. Otherwise they would have been complained of far more vehemently than was actually the case. They could be commuted by the payment of money, and the amount demanded as composition was not large. In 1620 the total amount paid by the maids and widows of a large seigniory for exemption from *corvées* was fifteen sous. Sometimes local custom required that the lord should feed the peasant and his animals while they were performing the stated service.

Closely connected with the amount derived from the *banalités*, which M. d'Avenel considers to have been extremely little, there is the revenue derived from the *cens*, or the fixed, invariable rent paid by the tenant for his holding. While this amount is regularly forthcoming, a bare title only is vested in the lord; the usufruct belongs wholly to the tenant. The chief fact which bears upon the value of the *cens* is the rapid decline in the purchasing power of money. The shrinkage of the *livre tournois* from its importance in the reign of Saint Louis to its insignificance in the reign of Louis XIII. affected the revenues of the nobles disastrously. Legally the rate of payment remained what it had been in the Middle Ages. A livre was a livre; and, no matter how low its purchasing power, it was still the unit of payment, save in some cases where the tenant was bound to pay grain or cattle. From the end of the Middle Ages the nobles kept growing poorer by the action of economic causes, and could make good their losses only by drawing on the royal civil list—an expedient which was open to but few.

But we should misrepresent the contents of this animated volume if we limited our notice to economic matters. The bulk of the space is given up to subjects which admit of copious illustration from the personal history of the time, including duels, elopements, and gaming. Almost every important statement is supported by its incident or its anecdote. One of the best chapters centres about the spirit of the aristocratic order—its sense of honor and its brutality, its love of adventure and the narrowness of its horizon. M. d'Avenel is perfectly frank, and some of the episodes which he recalls take one back to the nobles of Austrasia and Neustria. Yet, despite the crudeness of practical jokes and public brawling, there is an untamed vigor in sight which contrasts favorably with the tone of society under Louis XV. And it is shared impartially by cavaliers and dames. At the trial of Montmorency, M. de Guitaux was asked whether he had seen the accused in the fight at Castelnaudary. He answered, "que le voyant tout convert de sang, de feu et de fumée, il eût de la peine à le connaître, mais qu'enfin lui ayant vu rompre six de leurs rangs, et tuer des soldats dans le septième, il jugea bien que ce ne pouvait être autre que lui." As for the corresponding activity of women, Mme. de Bonneval fought a duel with her own husband, and Mme. de Saint-Balmont is said during her life to have killed or taken prisoners more than four hundred men. And this was in an age which witnessed the founding of the French Academy!

It is impossible for a modern historian to consider any subject in isolation, and M. d'Avenel draws his comparisons not only from other European states in the era of Richelieu, but from earlier and later periods of French history. One long and valuable part of his book looks forward to the rapid decline of the aristocracy between the death of Louis XIII. and the Revolution. Any one who examines the condition of France in 1752, when Lord Chesterfield is prophesying a speedy catastrophe, for which he gives his reasons, must see that the nobles no longer possess their former prestige. As a privileged order they still preserve their immunity from taxation. Why is it that they count for less in the social life of the land and also in power?

M. d'Avenel finds two main grounds for the change. The first is a silent transformation of manners, and the second is the royal practice of ennobling many persons who to-day would rise only to the lower grades of the Legion of Honor. The nobles fall behind in the race for distinction when fighting ceases to be the normal occupation of a gentleman. They do not keep pace with the general intellectual movement. M. d'Avenel says very neatly: "Un grand *Cedant arma togæ* passe tout à coup sur l'Europe civilisée; c'est un mot d'ordre que nul encore n'a l'audace de proférer à voix haute, mais qui déjà, dans les masses profondes du tiers-état, caresse doucement les oreilles." When the arts of peace thrust the duellist and fire-eater in the background, the nobles did not conform to the changed circumstances. Unlike the members of the English peerage, they held aloof from the hard work of government. Even as early as the regency of Mazarin, they begged high places for their friends rather than for themselves because they felt their own incompetence. The Crown, by selling patents of honor and by granting them for insufficient services, accelerated the downward course of the order. Whether or not Louis XIV. acted from a desire to weaken the aristocracy by adulterating it, the effect was disastrous to the reputation which the upper classes bore among the commonalty.

In contrast to the completeness of his information about France, one observes in M. d'Avenel's references to England a slight disposition to inaccuracy. "Lord Herbert Cherbury" is not the familiar form of Lord Edward Herbert's name, and Englishmen can hardly claim that they have no equivalent of the word *mésalliance*, "parce que l'idée blessante qu'il éveille n'y est pas connue." The French term is repeatedly quoted in English writings to express an idea with which Englishmen are quite familiar. But this is captious criticism to pass on a most learned and entertaining book.

Biographical and Other Articles. By William C. Todd, A.B., President of the New Hampshire Historical Society. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1901.

In the Boston Public Library, the Newspaper Reading-Room founded by Mr. Todd is surpassed in the number of readers by no other department, and this fact will lead many people to look into his sketches. The large class who have no time for book-reading will be further attracted by brevity—a real Greek horror of too much—in each of the eight monographs which they find bound together. Interest must be strongest in Newburyport, where Mr. Todd started and endowed the first Newspaper Reading-Room, and where his home has always been, next to his native Atkinson. The biographies are all associated with that neighborhood. Every article contains something that every reader will be glad to learn—each idea the more attractive because flavored with the individuality of the author. He has been a leisurely looker-on in scenes of many-colored life at home and in three continents abroad. A snapper-up of trifles unconsidered by most, he gives them such a setting, whatever his topic, that they are trifles no longer. His twenty pages on Webster, for instance, are a mosaic from more than a dozen unexpected witnesses. The New England rural pastor before 1800 is drawn to the life, with a halo around homely or quaint customs now forgotten, but on which moderns look back curiously. This chapter, as well as "A Summer in Norway," will be the freshest revelation to most readers, for they are too young to have come into contact with the last survivors of the clergy of the colonial era. In 1879 Mr. Todd voyaged in a crowded tourist steamer to the cape of the midnight sun, and afterwards, as a solitary pilgrim, walked well-nigh four hundred miles on unbeaten Norwegian paths. The idyllic characteristics discovered with glad surprise in recesses not yet demoralized have never been more lovingly chronicled.

Mr. Todd's favorite is Caleb Cushing, with whom he was intimate. Cushing, in his judgment, not only was the first citizen of Newburyport, but might well have been so counted everywhere. But why such exceptional talents should have failed, after all, to secure for Cushing a lasting national reputation; why he is not among the cherished great men of his native State; why the Senate rejected him on Grant's nomination to the Supreme Court, and why that nomination was a surprise to the country at large—are questions of which the answer must be sought outside of Mr. Todd's pages. Such readers as from childhood have heard traditional stories about Lord Timothy Dexter, of whalebone stays and warming-pan notoriety, may be most interested in the paper which shows up authentically his real life, its facts and its fictions alike. The fictions of history are our author's pet aversion. It is not safe to question any fact which he states or even assents to. His estimate of New Hampshire fighters at Bunker Hill, as two-thirds of the rebels in conflict there, appears, for instance, a wild exaggeration to one who remembers that, in 1775, the New Hampshire Continentals were only 2,824 to 16,444 from Massachusetts. His reckoning has been proved at last the exact truth by official military returns (New Hampshire Hist. Soc. Proc., vol. i., p. 361).

The last and longest of these miscellanies, "Some Persons I Have Seen," has a significant sentence and sometimes more about each of some sixty celebrities. This chapter cries aloud for an index. Mr. Todd

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was the last man from whom a book thus unfinished was to be feared. The desideratum will doubtless be supplied in the second edition, which cannot remain long uncalled for. Typographical faults, and they are many, which could not have existed had the author's eyes allowed him to revise proofs, must also be corrected.

The New Brazil: Its Resources and Attractions, Historical, Descriptive, and Industrial. By Marie Robinson Wright. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. 1901. 4to, pp. 450. Illustrated.

So long a period has elapsed since a comprehensive work on Brazil has appeared in English that Mrs. Wright has entered a field free from competitors. Any one wishing to know the actual conditions in that country must in consequence have recourse to this book. Its popularity would certainly have been greater had it been published in smaller form, and the loss of illustrations which this would have entailed would not have been a detriment. As it stands, it is a sort of picture gallery of Brazil, in which nearly every thing and every man of note in the whole country are represented. A wise selection of illustrations would have been more effective. The book is not, however, written as a mere accompaniment to the pictures. Mrs. Wright, if not the keenest of observers, is at least an observer by wholesale. She covers the entire field. She has method, and has inquired into every detail of the national life. In this respect the work is eminently satisfactory, for it answers in its fashion every question that a foreigner might ask. She has not taken the gossip of the port cities, but has seen the things she writes about, and consequently gives in the main an accurate account of the social and industrial life of Brazil, from Rio Grande do Sul to Pará and Manáos. It is when she departs from matters personally observed that she falls into error. The old familiar notion of that impossible canal from the Orinoco to the Rio Negro is once more set forth in alluring phrase, with the further suggestion of similar canals from the Rio Madeira to the river system of the Paraguay, and of a waterway from the upper Amazon to the Pacific! Here is an interoceanic route which our Congress has not considered! The magnificence of the water-transportation routes in South America has encouraged indiscreet predictions many times before, and has led more than one savant to anticipate a growth of population and power in the centre of South America which the very existence of those waterways will long retard, considering the immense difficulties which they themselves are partly responsible for placing in the way of supplementing them with railroads.

What we chiefly miss in this book is a revelation of the character of the Brazilians, and an interpretation of the spirit of the people as shown in their social and political life. We nowhere feel the pulse of the nation. All is impersonal, in spite of much laudation of the achievements of notable men and women who have made and are making the history of the country. The author's turn of mind is preëminently practical, and the subtler manifestations of life she has not grasped. But the conditions of trade and commerce, the undeveloped resources of this favored land, and the opportunities for colonization are fully presented. Perhaps Mrs. Wright is even too optimistic, so that she fails to draw any lessons from the financial crisis in which the country has been laboring, and from the failures which have attended the planting of numerous colonies in the past. It is easy to say that northern settlers will find here a fertile soil and a salubrious climate, but the experience of the world has shown that the perils and hardships of pioneer life are greater in the tropics than elsewhere, and that malarial fever is a bane not easy to overcome. Moreover, the petty official is ever an obstructionist, and in Brazil this evil is very great, offsetting to a large extent the liberality of the laws. From her failure to speak out boldly against such abuses, the author would seem to be too intent upon remaining *persona grata* to the Brazilians. The same spirit shows in the treatment of the religious life of the people, which is dismissed without analysis of any sort. While the intelligent reader will instinctively discount the opinions of a traveller whose every word is praise and commendation, it is nevertheless better to deal thus than to indulge in that carping criticism which has marred the productions of so many writers upon the Latin-American republics. Despite its defects, therefore, this work will stand as a valuable contribution to our knowledge of present conditions in one of the most interesting and progressive American commonwealths.

Surrey. By Walter Jerrold. With illustrations by J. A. Symington. London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

This dainty volume contains all any one can wish to know about Surrey. Mr. Dewar, the editor, in his introduction, says that he who writes of his county should feel convinced of its excelling in beauty and interest all other counties, so that his book should be a labor of love. This is entirely the case with Walter Jerrold, so that, unlike the usual guide-book, his chapters are excellent reading, not only describing the natural resources of Surrey, its manufactures, its historical and literary associations, its hunting, fishing, and sport, but introducing also his personal experiences and observations, which are told with a vivacity that insures the interest of the reader. There is keen enjoyment in his planned excursions. Whether he gives us the choice of highway or byway, we feel that every path is familiar to him; we scent the pine woods and heather; he calls our attention to the distant view, and tells us of the wayside inn, of the flowers we shall see in the woods we pass through, and of the birds that frequent its shades. Everything has been noted by our author; besides which, he is well read in the book-lore of his county, and lets us share his acquaintance with writers, ancient and modern, who have mentioned in history, correspondence, poetry, or fiction the sites he wishes us to visit. The many famous authors connected with Surrey in various ways are all introduced in their right place, and appositely quoted for our enlightenment—from Thomas Fuller, John Evelyn, Aubrey, Samuel Pepys, and John Toland, among the elders, to the Rev. O. Manning (the historian of the county), William Cobbett, Keats, Shelley, Ruskin, Dickens, George Meredith, and William Morris. Of famous houses and places of note, of architectural beauty or historical interest, Surrey contains not a few. They are all here, and the illustrations of J. Symington which interpolate the text are very helpful and pleasing.

Part II. contains chapters on natural history and sport. "Our Surrey Birds" is by J. A. Bucknell. There are no less than sixty-odd species, and the lists of summer residents and winter visitors enable us to know when to look for them. E. Step writes of the flora of the county, which seems to have changed during the last forty years—no doubt on account of the fashion for wild flowers in London. The woods and hedges are stripped of flowers, leaves, and berries to supply the market, and the Selborne Society in vain protests against the ruthless tearing up of roots and the molestation of wild creatures of the woods. Those who belong to this society (and it counts many members) would strongly disapprove of the Rev. G. J. Vernon's entomological chapter, in which he treats of catching moths by "sugaring." The cyclist will find a special chapter with twenty-five routes made out for him, a lighting-up table, and another of cross-bearings. A gazetteer of Surrey and two excellent maps are included in this most useful volume of the "Rural England Series."

Five Years in Ireland, 1895-1900. By Michael J. F. McCarty, Barrister-at-law. London: Simpkin & Marshall. Pp. x + 568. Portraits and illustrations.

This is the work of a young Catholic Irishman, whose portrait, taken apparently in court suit, and surrounded by favorable notices of the book (which has run to four editions), faces the title-page. Neither the portraits of other personages nor the views of places appear selected upon any settled plan. As the name suggests, the book professes to be a record of the principal events that occurred in Ireland between the dates named. It is stuffed with puerilities, while many really important subjects, such as the growth of the Irish language movement, are left unnoticed. Mr. McCarty's thesis is that Ireland has now, mainly through the wisdom of the Conservative party in Parliament, all she should desire, and that it is her own fault if she does not settle down a proud and happy portion of the United Kingdom. If Mr. Parnell was one of her chief benefactors and rightly one of her heroes in the past, Lord Cadogan and the brothers Balfour are so now. The late visit of the Queen was one of the greatest events in Irish history. The Protestant population, especially that of the north, is compared favorably with the Catholic. The present is viewed without consideration of the influences and history of the past. Two chapters are devoted to the perpetrators of a few dreadful crimes and insanities, as illustrative of the general character of the Irish people. No nation on earth could be shown worthy of free institutions if judged upon such premises; and those who really know the Irish believe them to be as free from great faults as any other peoples.

The work, however, contains important matter, and deserves the attention of all deeply interested in Irish affairs. We do not wonder at the extraordinary vogue it is having in the capital, at least, of Ireland—that it is permanently on sale in ev-

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ery book-shop not specially Catholic, that it is in circulation by the score at the lending libraries, and that at the National (Government) Library of Ireland, partly under Catholic direction, it has so far been refused admission, whilst there (as we are told) "asked for by millions of readers." It is in the main and essentially the protest of a Catholic against what he conceives to be the influence of his Church in Ireland, in weakening the mental fibre of the people, and, by its claims upon their purses, impeding their material progress. Mr. McCarty is certainly to be commended for his courage. We do not wonder that the *Daily News* writes: "Had he uttered it in the sixteenth century, [it] would have brought him to the stake, or landed him in a Roman dungeon had he given expression to it anywhere in the States of the Church before the King of Italy made an end of the temporal power." The book is naturally acceptable in Protestant circles. Its importance or otherwise as a sign of the times depends upon the extent to which the views expressed by the author are germinating in the minds of his coreligionists. If the state of affairs he deplores has been developed under present institutions, is it not likely to be most effectually combated by what he least desires—placing the effective political control of the country in the hands of the people? In any case, the success of this book and the circulation among all classes in Ireland of a new weekly paper, the *Leader*, are proof that an unwonted spirit of criticism of men and movements is taking hold of the country.

The Macdonough-Hackstaff Ancestry. By Rodney Macdonough. Boston: Press of Samuel Usher. 1901.

Records of pedigrees, like the devices of heraldry, are chiefly of interest only to the persons concerned. Few families of modern days have done anything to win the coats of arms they boast, or shed lustre on the bead-rolls of names they bear. The usual tables of descent are as barren as the Biblical catalogues of the Dukes of Edom, lacking personality and linked with no historical event. Some few of such diagrams of converging lines centre upon some eminent person, illustrating the force of heredity, but usually these genealogical researches result in mere dry, lifeless jotting down of births, deaths, and dates. The author of the compilation before us is fortunate in finding among his materials certain elements of distinction which heighten mere pedigrees with a touch of the vivacity of annals, and he has availed himself of this advantage with no little literary cleverness. A record which can so connect its page with public affairs, and can cite as a possession the names of men in three generations conspicuous for service in the American Revolution, the naval war of 1812, and the closing days of commerce by sailing-craft, has interest for the general reader apart from that inspired by the claim of special kinship.

The seed of the trees of descent here sketched was planted in Saxon soil. English, German, and Scotch sap nourished their growth, varied to advantage by a Celtic graft. On the paternal side, the author's ancestors before his great-grandfather's generation were settled at Kildare, in Ireland. The English island of Antigua was the home of some of the progenitors of the line, which is traced on the maternal side to Alstadt in Germany at the date of 1750. One of the author's ancestors in the fifth ascending generation was a merchant of the city of New York, William Denning, a native of the West Indian island of Antigua, who married successively two sisters, Hawxhursts, of an English family long settled in Long Island. In the troubled times preceding the outbreak of the Revolution, the friends of independence found in him a wise counsellor and active organizer. His name is conspicuous among those of the chief citizens who guided the people with constancy and sagacity in the dangers of their doubtful course. On committees at home, in correspondence with the other colonies, and in commercial measures of prevision, he was among the foremost. At a later time, his services in legislation were constant, and Congress often asked his advice and aid in financial adjustments. At the same period, another paternal ancestor held the rank of major in a Delaware regiment, and upon the peace became, after important legislative services, a judge in the courts of that State.

The triumph of independence left details of controversy between the nations engaged still unsettled. Persistent holding by England of territory conceded only in pledge, and arrogant claims of allegiance, demanding another conflict for their determination, provoked the naval war of 1812. When that war was to be closed, the military advisers of England confessed that the brilliant successes of her antagonist, especially the victory of Plattsburgh—for negotiations began before the battle of New Orleans—forbade any exacting demands of settlement. And this was just when the downfall of Napoleon had released her fleets and armies for other service. The name of the commander in that action, Thomas Macdonough, stands secure in history among the earlier glories of the republic. His grandson, the compiler of this record, inheriting the modesty which was conspicuous in his ancestor, makes no attempt to magnify his fame, only presenting a sketch of his early and too short life, and a facsimile of his dispatch announcing the victory. A steel engraving adorns the page, from Gilbert Stuart's fine portrait, of uncertain date, probably about 1818—a supreme example of his art.

In this era of six-day transits by steam greyhounds, we read with amusement of a time when the world's commerce crept sluggishly under sail, and packets brought over as news only once a month a novel by Scott, or a poem of Byron's, or a battle by Napoleon. Yet, within such limitations, American navigators of those days perfected their art, and secured for the leisurely and comparatively few passengers by their packets a degree of safety and comfort hardly now surpassed. The inconvenience of delay was compensated for by a certain measure of luxury among select companions, while no mob of globe-trotters vexed the voyager's soul. Among the accomplished seamen of that period, Capt. Hackstaff, from 1824 to 1851, was famous for the safety and dispatch of his voyages, and his perfect sailor-like courtesy.

Interspersed throughout the book are many distinct memoirs, often presenting curious phases of remote colonial life and manners. Apt illustrations break the uniformity of its subject, such as old-fashioned likenesses, and facsimiles of ancient wills and documents. The typography and binding are not less noticeable than the diligence and research devoted to the preparation of its contents.

Maryland as a Proprietary Province. By Newton D. Mereness. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

To students of colonial history that of Maryland is apt to seem tame and uneventful. Indian wars she had none worth the name; her occasional revolutions and counter-revolutions were remarkable rather for humanity than for heroism, and the chronic bickerings between the governors and the burgesses scarcely rose above parochial magnitude. Yet for this very reason, and from the fact that there were scarcely any violent irruptions into the peaceful process of transformation, the history of Maryland affords exceptional opportunities for studying the regular course of political, social, and industrial development.

Maryland as a province occupied a peculiar position. Ruled by a proprietary with virtually royal powers, under a charter of wider scope than had ever been granted by a king of England; exempted from taxation by the crown; removed from both the control and the protection of Parliament, the Marylanders were yet declared to be English subjects, and entitled to all the rights, privileges, and liberties of Englishmen. So the people, when discontented (as they generally were) with the existing state of things, if they considered themselves aggrieved by the Proprietary (that is, during the first fifty years of the colony), they appealed to Magna Carta and their inalienable rights, and when they were aggrieved by the home government (as in the last fifty years) they appealed to the exemptions of their charter. Every political question, therefore, might have two aspects and be treated from two different points of view. And it would seem that every political question which could arise did arise, at some time or other, and was so treated, often with great ability on both sides.

All these questions are carefully examined and lucidly discussed in the work before us. The charter of Maryland being feudal, the whole system rested upon the land; and the land question, the modes of infeudation, the revenues derived from the land, the way in which the people were supported by it, and the social conditions which this life involved, are treated in full. Then the functions of each department of the Government, and their gradual transformation under changing conditions, are clearly set forth. The machinery of local government, the complicated questions of finance, religious matters under Catholic predominance, under Puritan predominance, and under the Established Church, are discussed with exemplary impartiality. Last, the relations with the Government of Great Britain, from the time it was looked to as a protector until it came to be regarded as an oppressor, lead us step by step from the Declaration of the Protestant Associators of 1689 to that of the Non-importation Associators of 1769, and so to the Revolution. We have here the colonial history of Maryland presented as an object-study in

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the gradual evolution of a free, self-governed commonwealth.

We cannot speak too highly of the way in which this work has been done. Dr. Mereness has studied every point in the light of the original contemporary documents, printed and in manuscript, not only those in the archives of the State, but those in private collections; and references to the authorities confirm every statement. The labor undergone has been great; but the result is a work planned and carried out in the truest historical spirit, and invaluable to the student of American history and institutional development.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. F. F. History and Description of Roman Political Institutions. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Abbott, Alice B. A Frigate's Namesake. Century Co. $1.
Allchin, W. H. A Manual of Medicine, Vol. III.: Diseases of the Nervous System. Macmillan. $2.
Baldry, A. L. Hubert von Herkomer, R.A. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Barr, Amelia E. The Lion's Whelp. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barr, Walter. Shacklett. D. Appleton & Co.
Bayles, G. J. Woman and the Law. Century Co. $1.40.
Becke, Louis. Yorke the Adventurer. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 6s.
Botsford, G. W. A History of the Orient and Greece. Macmillan. $1.20.
Bourne, E. G. Essays in Historical Criticism. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners. $2.
Boylan, Grace D., and Morgan, Ike. Kids of Many Colors. Chicago: Jamieson Higgins Co.
Brooks, Noah. First Across the Continent. Scribners. $1.50.
Cable, G. W. The Cavalier, Scribners. $1.50.
Calkins, G. N. The Protozoa. (Columbia University Biological Series.) Macmillan. $3.
Calkins, Mary W. An Introduction to Psychology. Macmillan. $4.
Cambridge, Ada. The Devastators. (Town and Country Library.) D. Appleton & Co.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Secret Orchard. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Chittenden, R. H. Studies in Physiological Chemistry. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners.
Crockett, S. R. Love Idylls. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
D'Ooge, B. L. Cicero: Select Orations. Boston: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.
Duer, Caroline. Unconscious Comedians. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fitzgerald, Joseph. Word and Phrase. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Forest, W. E. The New Methods in Health and Disease. Revised ed. The Health-Culture Co. $1.
Fowler, Edith H. The World and Winstow. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fraser, W. A. The Outcasts. Scribners. $1.25.
Gilberne, Agnes. The Mighty Deep and What We Know of It. London: C. Arthur Pearson; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Gibson, C. D. A Widow and her Friends. R. H. Russell.
Gibson, R. E. L. Sonnets and Lyrics. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.50.
Green, Kathleen H. Twelve Allegories. John Lane.
Hale, Ruth. The Golden Arrow. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hammond, T. W. On Board a Whaler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Harrisse, Henry. Découverte et Evolution Cartographique de Terre-Neuve et des Pays Circonvoisins. Paris: H. Welter; London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles.
Hegan, Alice C. Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch. Century Co. $1.
Hemstreet, Charles. The Story of Manhattan. Scribners. $1.
Heyse, Paul. Das Verschleierte Bild zu Sais. Lemcke & Buechner.
Hope, Anthony. The Dolly Dialogues. R. H. Russell.
Horton, George. Modern Athens. Scribners. $1.25.
Hubbard, Elbert. Time and Chance. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Huntington, Emily. How to Teach Kitchen Garden. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.
Inglenook Tales: (1) When the River Rose, by Jane Ellis Joy; (2) Ruby, Pearl, and Diamond, by Emma S. Allen; (3) The Little Maid of Doubting Castle, by Mary E. Q. Brush; (4) Rosy Posey's Mission, by Louise R. Barker; (5) Tommy Tucker, by J. C. Cowdrick; (6) Beppino, by Felicia B. Clark; (7) The Upstairs Family, by Mrs. O. W. Scott; and (8) The Minister's Twins, by F. E. Graeff. Eaton & Mains; Jennings & Pye. $3 per set.
Johnston, R. M. The Roman Theocracy and the Republic, 1846-1849. Macmillan. $3.25.
Kidd, Walter. Use-Inheritance. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 90c.
Knowles, F. L. The Golden Treasury of American Songs and Lyrics. Popular ed. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Larned, J. N. A Multitude of Counsellors. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Le Feuvre, Amy. Heather's Mistress. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Lehmann, R. C. Anni Fugaces. John Lane.
Leonard, Mary F. The Spectacle Man. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.
Le Row, Caroline B. English as She is Taught. With introduction by Mark Twain. Century Co. $1.
Lilly, W. S. Renaissance Types. Longmans, Green & Co.
Lloyd, John Uri. Warwick of the Knobs. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, Ronald. "God Save the King!" Century Co. $1.50.
MacLehose, Sophia H. The Last Days of the French Monarchy. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Malet, Lucas. The History of Sir Richard Calmady. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Mar, Alex. Del. A History of the Precious Metals. New ed. Cambridge Encyclopædia Co.
Marillier, H. C. Dante Gabriel Rossetti: An Illustrated Memorial of his Art and Life. New ed. abridged. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $12.50.
Masson, David. Chatterton: A Biography. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
McIntyre, Robert. A Modern Apollos. Eaton & Mains. $1.50.
Merwin, Samuel. The Road to Frontenac. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Mitchell, J. A. Amos Judd. Scribners. $1.50.
Mitchell, S. W. Circumstance. Century Co. $1.50.
Molloy, Fitzgerald. The Queen's Comrade; Sarah Duchess of Marlborough. 2 vols. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $6.50.
Montgomery, F. A. Reminiscences of a Mississippian in Peace and War. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $5.
Morris, E. P. On Principles and Methods in Latin Syntax. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners.
Morris, Gouverneur. Tom Beauling. Century Co. $1.25.
Mortimer, W. G. Peru: History of Coca. J. H. Vail & Co. $5.
National Dictionary of Biography: Supplement, Vols. I. and II. Macmillan.
New Education Readers, Book Four. American Book Co.
New York City Standard Guide. Foster & Reynolds.
Old King Cole Book of Nursery Rhymes. Macmillan. $1.75.
Onderdonk, J. L. History of American Verse. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Padovan, Adolfo. Cos' è il genio? Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Paine, Albert Bigelow. The Van Dwellers. J. F. Taylor & Co. 75 cents.
Peloubet, F. N. Suggestive Illustrations on the Gospel of St. John. Rev. ed. Philadelphia: A. J. Holman & Co.
Pemberton, Max. Love, the Harvester. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Perrin, Bernadotte. Plutarch's Themistocles and Aristides. Scribners. $2.50.
Porter, J. G. The Stars in Song and Legend. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. The Laird's Luck, and Other Fireside Tales. Scribners. $1.50.
Reed, Myrtle. The Spinster Book. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Rendall, G. H. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus to Himself. (Golden Treasury Series.) Macmillan. $1.
Richardson, E. C. Classification, Theoretical and Practical. Scribners. $1.20.
Rolfe, J. C. Satires and Epistles of Horace. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.40.
Rossetti, Dante Gabriel. The New Life of Dante Alighieri. R. H. Russell.
Seawell, Molly Elliot. Papa Bouchard. Scribners. $1.25.
Shakespeare's Songs. John Lane.
Sharp, Evelyn. The Youngest Girl in the School. Macmillan. $1.50.
"Slam." Modern Bridge. Longmans, Green & Co. 90c.
Sloane, W. M. The French Revolution and Religious Reform. Scribners. $2.
Stephens, R. N. Captain Ravenshaw. L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Stevens, G. B. The Teaching of Jesus. Macmillan. 75c.
Tappan, Eva M. Old Ballads in Prose. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Taylor, M. Imlay. Anne Scarlett. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Torrey, Bradford. Footing It in Franconia. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Tweedale, Violet. Her Grace's Secret. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Waters, B. Training the Hunting Dog. Forest & Stream Publishing Co. $1.50.
Webster, Sidney. Two Treaties of Paris and the Supreme Court. Harpers.
Westcott, E. N. The Teller. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Wheelright, E. M. School Architecture. Boston: Rogers & Manson. $5.
White, Gilbert. The Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne. London: Methuen; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Whitman, Alfred. The Print Collector's Handbook. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Wildman, Edwin. Aguinaldo: A. Narrative of Filipino Ambitions. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.20.
Wilkins, W. H. South Africa a Century Ago: Letters from the Cape of Good Hope by the Lady Anne Barnard. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Wormeley, Katharine P. Memoirs of Madame de Motteville. 3 vols. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Yale, L. M., and Pollak, Gustav. The Century Book for Mothers. Century Co. $2.
Zollinger, Gulielma. Maggie McLanehan. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.

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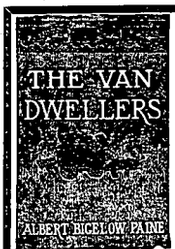

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